

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF INDIA

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FOR THE USE OF
HIGH SCHOOLS
COLLEGES
AND:
PRIVATE
STUDENTS

BY CHARLES JOPPEN, S.J.

NEW AND REVISED EDITION

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FOR THE USE OF HIGH SCHOOLS, COLLEGES AND
PRIVATE STUDENTS

BY

CHARLES JOPPEN, S.J.

FOURTH EDITION

Revised by H. L. O. GARRETT, I.E.S. (retired)

Late Principal Government College, Lahore

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PREFACE TO THE FOURTH EDITION

Some further additions and changes have been made in this edition. Two new additional maps have been added. One showing the various archaeological sites of importance throughout the country, and the other a map of the Indian Empire in 1936, illustrating the changes which have taken place as the result of the Reforms Act. The letterpress has also been carefully revised and some additions made where necessary, while a few more names have been added in some of the earlier maps.

January, 1938.

H. L. O. GARRETT.

FROM THE PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

The purpose of this atlas is not to furnish a set of detailed maps for the use of mature scholars, but to provide a general conspectus of Indian history chiefly for the use of School and College students. Hence names of towns and forts familiar to antiquarians or those of minor states which do not come within the scope of general history have been passed over ; for it has been thought desirable not to mar the clearness of the maps by overcrowding them with names of secondary or local importance. On the other hand the maps presuppose an elementary knowledge of the Geography of India, its mountain ranges, towns, and districts, which it is not the duty of an historical atlas to supply. The boundary lines naturally cannot claim to be mathematically accurate, but are as correct as the available information allows. Indefinite or unascertainable frontiers are generally suggested by a straight dotted line. The notes given are strictly explanatory of the maps and are thus for the most part confined to describing territorial changes. The sources quoted will supply the student with information where required.

St. Xavier's High School,
Fort, Bombay, September, 1907.

CHARLES JOPPEN, S.J.

FROM THE PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

In this edition three new maps have been added, map 28 has been redrawn, and maps 16, 27, and 28 have been reproduced on a larger scale. The new maps show Alexander's Indian Campaign (map 2), the Portuguese Power in the East at its Zenith (map 13), and the Principal Mahratta States in 1795 (map 22).

February, 1910.

CHARLES JOPPEN, S.J.

PREFACE TO THE THIRD EDITION

Again some changes and additions have been made. The number of maps has been increased by three : map 1 representing surface and vegetation features of India, map 2 giving the old Indian names of the chief rivers and ascertainable localities of some of the principal Aryan tribes, and map 17 showing " the Portuguese Provinces of the North." Maps 9, 10, 16, and 33 have been redrawn on larger scales and map 15 has been enlarged. Many of the corrections are due to the suggestion of kind friends, and I gratefully acknowledge my obligation to them.

The footnotes of the letterpress to the later maps have been left on the whole as they were written for the second edition, because handy books of reference on the History of India in the Middle Ages and in Modern Times of the kind of Mr. V. A. Smith's *Early History of India* still remain a desideratum.

Lastly, I have the pleasure of thanking the Secretary of State for India, Messrs. John Bartholomew & Co., and the Clarendon Press for their courtesy in permitting the use of maps 4 and 5 of the *Imperial Gazetteer* atlas in the construction of map 1. The idea of combining the two features on one map is my own, but I owe much to the technical skill of the map-printers for the successful execution of the plan. The mass of information this map offers ought to make it particularly valuable to students of history who have both the will and the leisure to study the map with care.

Cambridge,
February, 1914.

CHARLES JOPPEN, S.J.

S. C. S. T. West Bengal

Date

Loc No. 5547

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1. Surface and Vegetation

The physical features of a land are responsible for much in the making of its earlier history. Yet a satisfactory method of combining physical and political features on a map has not yet been found. Sometimes the physical and sometimes the political aspect comes out more prominently, and often the whole map is lacking in that clearness which is especially desirable in school maps. As in most of the maps of this atlas more prominence is given to the political features, it was thought that a special map showing surface and vegetation would be very welcome.

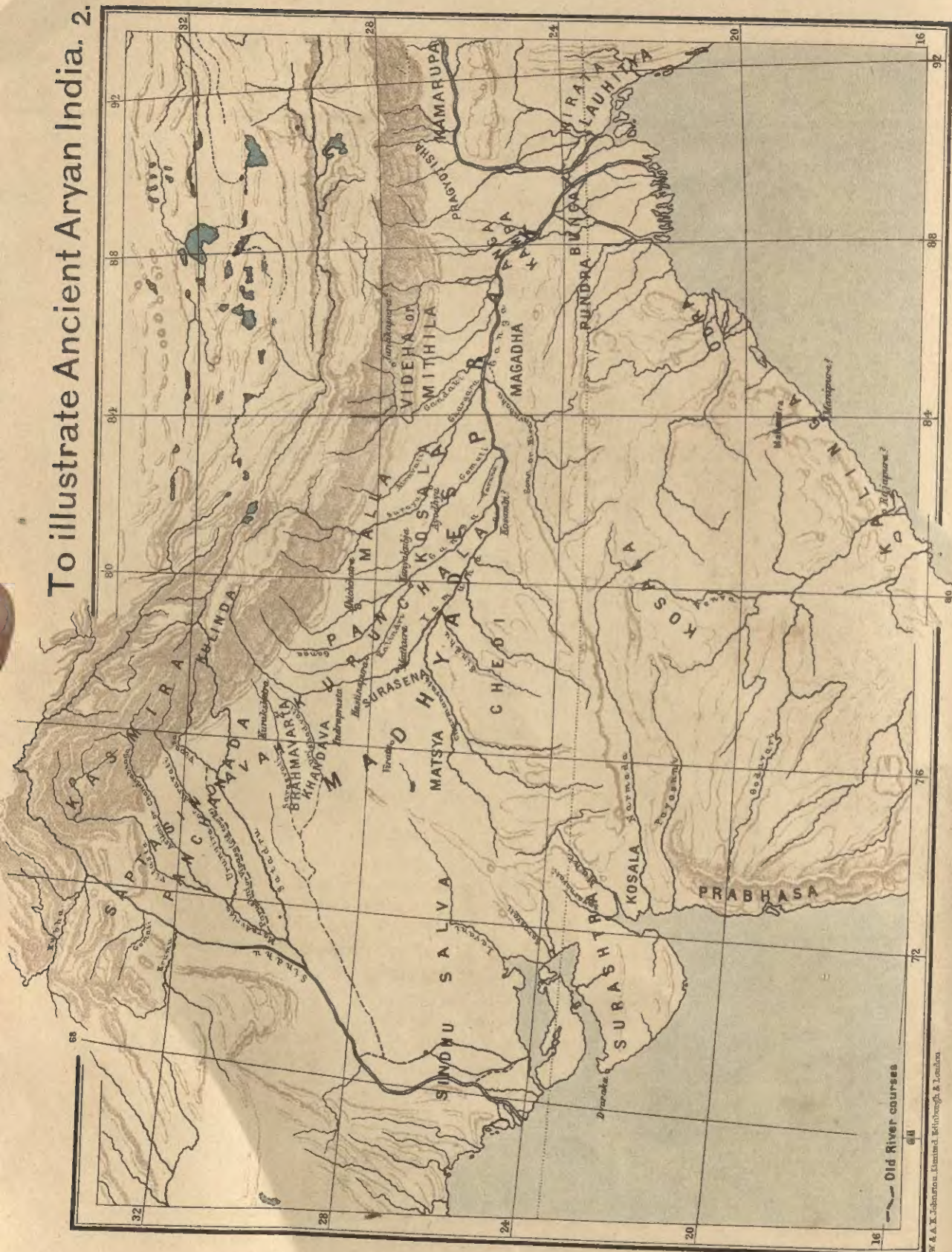
Once the signs adopted for the various features have been understood, it will not be difficult for the lecturer or teacher to explain or for the student to understand, with the help of the map, why first settlement and conquest selected some district rather than another, and how invasion generally followed the same line of least resistance. The features given on the map are those of the present day. In earlier days much more land was, of course, covered with forest. Also some of the rivers have changed their courses, and we have indicated some of the older river beds on subsequent maps. But we may assume that the surface levels have not changed within historic times, and that, with very few exceptions, what is fertile land now was cultivable land also in early historic times. This map also shows once for all the names of rivers, mountains, and the sites of some of the more important towns.

SURFACE and VEGETATION.

1.



To illustrate Ancient Aryan India. 2.



2. To Illustrate Ancient Aryan India¹

Ancient Aryan India was divided into Saptasindavah, Panchanada, Madhyadesa, and Praki. **Saptasindavah** comprised the land watered by the middle course of the Sindhu (Indus), the Vitasta (Jhelum), and the Asikni or Chandrabhaga (Chenab), which, after their confluence, form the Marudvrida, the Urungira or Airavati (Ravi), Parushni or Vipasa (Bias), and Satadru (Sutlej) and by the Sarasvati. **Panchanada** is the country through which only the five great eastern tributaries of the Sindhu flow. The land between the Sarasvati and Drishadvati was called "**Brahmavarta**." In Saptasindavah and on the banks of the Gomati (Gomal), Krumu (Kurru), and Kubha (Kabul) were the earliest settlements of the Aryans. But gradually they moved down the Indus and into **Madhyadesa** (Middle Country). This extends from Vinasana, where the Sarasvati disappears in the sands, towards the east and south-east. Its streams were the Yamuna (Jumna), and the lower courses of its southern tributaries the Charmanvati (Chambal), Sindhu (Sind), the upper and higher middle Ganga (Ganges), Gomati (Gumti), Surayu (Surju), and, at its eastern boundary, the Airavati (Rapti). **Praki** (East Land) comprised the land watered by the lower middle and lower Ganga and its tributaries the Ghargara (Gogra), Gandaki (Gandak), Sona or Hiranyabaha (Son), and others.

The **Vedic hymns** give the names of numerous Aryan tribes in Panchanada, but they are beyond all identification.

Part at least of the story of the **Ramayana** was acted in the land of **Kosala**, on the banks of the Gomati, Surayu, and Airavati, with its capital Ayodhya, and in the kingdom of the **Mithila** with their chief town Janakapura. South of the Ganga as far as the Godavari stretched Dadhaka, the great forest. The other countries mentioned in the epic cannot be determined.

The home of the **Pandava** and **Kaurava**, the two great opposing parties of the **Mahabharata**, was the land of the **Kuru** with the capital Hastinapura. The Pandava settled down west of the Yamuna and built a town Indraprasta (near the modern Delhi). Their great contest with the Kaurava took place at Kurukshetra, near Thaneswar. East of the Kuru was the kingdom of the **Panchala**, with their towns Ahichchatra, Kanyakubya, and Kosambi, who inhabited the lower Yamuna and Ganga Doab and the country east of the upper Ganga. While Kuru and Panchala thus occupied the north and east of Madhyadesa, the **Matsya** and **Surasena** lived in the south-west. The **Magadha**, originally settled in the Panchanada, had wandered east, built, among others, the towns of Kosambi and Kanyakubya and eventually settled down south of the lower Ganga. But, even in those early days, they seem to have been very powerful, the Mahabharata enumerating the **Anga**, **Bunga**, **Pundra**, and **Kirata** in the east and the **Chedi** and part of the **Matsya** in the west as subject or tributary to them. The **Kasmira** occupied the upper valleys of the Vitasta, Asikni, and Urungira, the **Kulinda** the mountains west of the Ganga sources. The **Malla** lived north of the Kosala. East of the Kosala were the **Videha** or **Mithila**. **Pragyotisha** was the country west of **Kamarupa**. **Lauhitya** was the land east of the lower Brahmaputra and the mouth of the Ganga. It was inhabited by the **Kirata**. The **Odra** lived in the present Orissa and south of these the **Kalinga**. Some of the **Kosala** had wandered to the south and settled south of the Vindhya and on the banks of the Narmada (Narbada) and Venva (Wainganga). Other Aryans settled on the Godavari, on the Payoshni (Tapti) and in the coastland south of the Payoshni, which was called **Prabhasa**. Gokharna was the southernmost Aryan settlement. In the west Krishna of **Dvaraka** in Surashtra was a powerful prince. In the present Sindh lived the **Sindhu** and between these and the Aravali hills the **Salva**.

¹ These notes as well as the corresponding map are based chiefly on C. Lassen's *Indische Alterthumskunde*, vol. i., 2nd ed. and on H. Kiepert's map in vol. ii. of the same work.

3. Alexander's Empire in 326 B.C.

This map represents the Empire of Alexander the Great, king of **Macedon**, who from the Persians took **Egypt** and **all western Asia** as far as the river Indus. The course of his march (327–324 B.C.) is shown by the red line and its direction by the accompanying arrows.

The Persian king Darius had annexed the Indus valley about the year 500 B.C., and at Alexander's time the Indus was the boundary between the Persian Empire and India, while the Punjab and Sindh were ruled by numerous native chiefs.¹ The course of the Punjab rivers then differed from their present one, and large tracts of land which are now sterile were then fertile fields.² The map shows the present courses of the rivers.

From Nikaia, west of the modern Jalalabad,³ Hephaistion, one of Alexander's generals, advanced in 327 B.C. through the valley of the Kabul river, while Alexander himself marched through the hilly country north of that stream to protect his army from attacks on the flank and rear and to secure his communications.⁴ In 326, having joined Hephaistion, he crossed the Indus, probably at Ohind, sixteen miles above the modern Attock.⁵ **Taxiles** of Taxila,⁶ north-west of the modern Rawalpindi, had already submitted before Alexander's arrival. In the battle of the Hydaspes, on the eastern bank of that river, **Porus**, king of the country between Hydaspes and Akesines, was defeated and captured, but was allowed to retain his country as a vassal. The Akesines and Hydraotes were next crossed. But on the banks of the Hyphasis, finding his troops unwilling to proceed farther, the conqueror reluctantly gave orders for a retreat. Retracing his steps to the Hydaspes, he formed a fleet, and sailed down the river accompanied by contingents of his army on both banks, the larger portion being on the eastern side. After numerous fights with the tribes on both banks, he arrived at Pattala.⁷ Having explored the western and eastern branch of the Indus, he himself marched back through **Gedrosia** and arrived at Susa in April or May 324, while his admiral Nearchus sailed through the Persian Gulf to the mouth of the Euphrates (dotted red line).

¹ V. A. Smith, *Early History of India*, p. 32.

² *Ib.*, p. 43.

³ *Ib.*, p. 44.

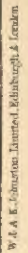
⁴ *Ib.*, p. 52.

⁵ *Ib.*, p. 33.

⁶ *Ib.*, p. 54.

⁷ The exact position of this town is disputed. Probably it was six miles west of the modern Mansurya. See Smith, *op. cit.*, p. 95.

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4. To illustrate ALEXANDER'S Indian Campaign.



4. To Illustrate Alexander's Indian Campaign¹

This map should be used in conjunction with Arrian's account of Alexander's Indian campaign ; for it shows nearly all the places, rivers, and peoples mentioned by that writer, who, as it would seem, gives the fullest and clearest description of Alexander's progress. The insertion of names given by other classical writers would have unduly crowded the map. Also the spelling of Arrian has been used. Out of conflicting opinions with regard to the sites of ancient places one has, of necessity, been adopted, but as a rule the chief counter-claimant has also been given.

¹ In the construction of this map much help has been derived from A. Cunningham's *Ancient Geography of India*, and from J. W. M'Crindle's *Invasion of India by Alexander the Great as described by Arrian, Qu. Curtius, etc.*

6. India in the Second Century A.D.¹

Soon after Asoka's death (232 B.C.) his empire broke up and his descendants seem to have retained only **Magadha** and the neighbouring provinces; **Kalinga** and **Andhra** were among the first to acquire independence.

The **Andhra** nation, a Dravidian people, occupied in Chandragupta's time the deltas of the Godaveri and Kistna (see map 5). After Asoka's death, they rapidly extended their power to the sources of the Godaveri and soon stretched right across the peninsula from the Arabian Sea to the Bay of Bengal, probably including Magadha (c. 27 B.C.).

About the middle of the second century B.C. hordes of Sakas, a pastoral tribe from the Jaxartes, established themselves in Sindh and Saurashtra (the modern Kathiawar), and their chiefs assumed the ancient Persian title of "**satrap**." Other foreigners also, the Yavanas (Asiatic Greeks or others coming from Grecian kingdoms in the north-west of India) and the Pallavas (Parthians from Persia), had by this time settled in western India as rulers over the native population. By the beginning of the second century A.D. all these became subject to the **Andhra** kings.

In A.D. 145, however, **Saurashtra**, **Malwa**, **Cutch**, **Sindh**, and the **Konkan** became independent under Rudradaman, one of the satraps. The northern and western boundaries of **Andhra** can thus be fixed, while towards the east and south they remain problematical. The capital of the **Andhra** kings at this time was **Paithan** on the Godaveri.

After Asoka's death Sogdiana, Baktria, the Kabul valley, and the Punjab were ruled by Greek and Parthian rulers, until they were overthrown by the Yuch-chi (Turki nomads), who in course of time became a settled nation. Under Kanishka, the third of the Kushan dynasty, they formed a mighty power, and waged a successful war even against the then powerful Chinese Empire. Towards the west **Kanishka's Empire** reached to the Persian frontier. In the east he had conquered Kashgar, Yarkand, and Khotan. He ruled over the whole of north-western India probably as far as the Jumna and the Chambal. Northwards the boundaries of his dominion are not clearly defined. The capital of his empire was Parushapura (the modern Peshawar). He acceded about A.D. 120,² and was a Buddhist.

The rest of India was at this time ruled by smaller Hindu rajas.

¹ For the whole of this chapter, compare Smith, op. cit., chapters viii, ix, x.

² Smith, op. cit., pp. 224, 225; also his paper on the Kushan period quoted on p. 219. The date, however, is not certain. Alternatives favoured by other authorities are A.D. 78 and even 58 B.C. [See papers and report of discussion in the *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society* of 1912 and 1913.]

5. India in 250 B.C.

Alexander seems to have intended a permanent annexation of the Indus valley and the Punjab, but when, after his death (323 B.C.), his vast empire was broken up, all his garrisons in India were destroyed or driven back. The leader in this struggle for liberty was Prince Chandragupta, then an exile from **Pataliputra**, but subsequently founder of the Mauryan dynasty of **Magadha**. He seems to have been the first supreme sovereign of Hindustan, his dominions extending from the Bay of Bengal to the Arabian Sea and reaching southwards probably as far as the Narbada. Seleukus, one of Alexander's generals, had made himself king of western and central Asia. But in 305 B.C. Chandragupta, after a successful campaign, forced him not only to give up all thought of conquest in India but also to cede the provinces of **Parapamisadai**, **Aria**, **Arachosia**, and probably **Gedrosia** (see maps 3 and 5). Thus the Hindu Kush mountains became the frontier of the first Indian Empire. Its capital was Pataliputra (now Patna). Chandragupta died in 297 B.C. and was succeeded by his son Bindusara († 272 B.C.) and his grandson, the renowned Asoka¹ (272-232).

Asoka's Empire extended in the north-west to the Hindu Kush, and included most of the territory now called Afghanistan, the greater part of Baluchistan, and all Sindh. Northwards his dominions stretched to the foot of the Himalayas and seem to have comprised the districts round Srinagar (which was built by him) and the territory round Lalita Patan in Nepal, two and a half miles south-east of Katmandu (also built by him). The whole of Bengal acknowledged his sway, and the kingdom of **Kalinga** (i.e., the strip of country extending along the coast of the Bay of Bengal from the Mahanadi to the Godaveri) was subjugated in 261 B.C.² The Dekkan had already been conquered either by Chandragupta or by Bindusara.³ The **Andhra** kingdom, between the Godaveri and the Kistna, was administered by its own raja, but seems to have been a protected state. The southern frontier of the empire must have coincided closely with the 13th degree of northern latitude. The southern Tamil kingdoms of **Chola**, **Pandya**, **Satiya**, and **Chera** remained independent. The hill tribes within the limits of the empire seem also to have enjoyed a certain amount of independence.⁴

Asoka is noted for his rock and pillar edicts, which are scattered all over India and tell us much of his principles of government and of his ethical system. Embracing Buddhism, he became active in its propagation, despatching missionaries not only over the whole of his empire, but also to Syria, Egypt and Macedonia.⁵

¹ For this para. compare Smith, op. cit., chapter v.

² Smith, op. cit., pp. 142, 143.

³ *Ib.*, p. 131.

⁴ *Ib.*, pp. 42, 143.

⁵ *Ib.*, p. 164.

5. INDIA in 250 B.C.



6. INDIA in the 2nd CENTURY A.D.



7. INDIA in 350 A.D.



8. The EMPIRE of the WHITE HUNS in the Beginning of the 6th Century A.D.



8. The Empire of the White Huns in the Sixth Century A.D.¹

Towards the close of the fourth century (A.D. 395) the kingdom of the Sakas or Western Satraps was overthrown by the Guptas, whose empire then extended from the Ganges delta to the Indus valley and the Arabian Sea.

The Gupta Empire subsisted till the end of the fifth century, when it was destroyed by the White Huns or Ephthalites. The Gupta dynasty, however, still retained possession of Magadha and the eastern provinces.

The Huns, a Mongol tribe, while moving westwards from the steppes of Asia in the second half of the fourth century to seek subsistence for their growing numbers, divided themselves into two main streams. The one advancing into Europe was united subsequently under the terrible Attila, while the other directed its course towards the Oxus valley. The latter section, known as the **White Huns**, overthrew the (Kushan) kingdom of Kabul and thence poured into India. About the year 500 they overwhelmed the kingdom of Gandhara (Peshawar) and overthrew the Gupta Empire.

At the beginning of the sixth century the Indian dominions of the Huns were ruled by **Mihiragula**, whose capital was at Sakala (Sialkot) in the Punjab. India was, however, only a province of the empire. The headquarters of the horde were at Bamyin (near Herat), while Balkh served them as a secondary capital. The Hunnish overlord levied tribute from forty countries extending from the frontiers of Persia in the west to Khotan on the borders of China in the east. Malwa was then ruled by a Hunnish prince, and Valabhi and other kingdoms must have been tributary to Mihiragula.

About the year 528 Mihiragula was defeated by Yasodharman, King of Malwa, in alliance with the Gupta king of Magadha. Between the years 560 and 570 the Persians, allied with Turkish tribes, overthrew the White Hun Empire, and the Oxus valley and other countries occupied by the Huns were then annexed by the Turks.

¹ Smith, *op. cit.*, chapter xii.

7. India in A.D. 350¹

In the beginning of the third century the Kushan and Andhra dynasties became extinct, and their empires were broken up into minor states. The middle of the fourth century reveals two other mighty empires, that of the **Guptas** and that of the **Western Satraps**. The Satrap Rudrasena and the Gupta Samudragupta were contemporaries.

The **Gupta** dynasty came into existence at the beginning of the fourth century A.D. Samudragupta's dominions extended from the Hugli to the Jumna and Chambal, and from the Himalayas to the Narbada **Samatata** (in the Ganges delta), **Kamarupa** (the present Assam), and other smaller states were tributary to him. The clans in northern Rajputana were under his protection.

Samudragupta organised a great campaign in the south of India, but achieved no permanent conquest. This campaign is of interest, however, because its records reveal the political state of affairs in the south. His first attack was directed against South **Kosalla** and the valley of the Mahanadi, after which he subdued the forest countries of Orissa, took the hill-forts of Mahendragiri and Kottura in Ganjam, conquered **Pishtapura** (now Pithapuram), defeated the king of **Vengi**, the Pallava king of **Kanchi** (now Conjeveram), and the Pallava king of **Palakha** (now Palghatcherry). Then, returning through the western parts of the Dekkan he subdued **Devarashtra** (probably the Mahratta country) and **Erandapalla** (Khandesh).

This information about Samudragupta is wholly derived from the inscriptions on a stone pillar still standing in the fort of Allahabad.

Towards the end of the fourth century the territories of the Western Satraps were incorporated into the Gupta Empire.

¹ *Ib.*, pp. 247-8, 255-6.

9. India in the Seventh Century A.D.¹

After the overthrow of the White Huns no supreme power existed in India until the beginning of the seventh century, when **Harsha** (606-647 or 648), originally king of **Thaneswar**, after a thirty-five years' war, became the lord paramount of the north, while **Pulikesin II.**, the greatest of the **Chalukya** dynasty, was the leading sovereign in the south.

About 620 the armies of the northern and southern empires met. The result of this encounter was that Harsha was forced to accept the **Narbada** river as his southern frontier.

At the end of his reign Harsha held sway over the whole of the Gangetic plain from the Himalayas to the **Narbada**, while the kings of **Kamarupa** (Assam), **Valabhi** (in Kathiawar), and **Nepal** were his vassals. His capital was **Kanyakubya** (Kanauj) on the **Ganges**.

By this time **Kalinga** had been depopulated and was for the most part covered with jungle. In the west the independent kingdom of **Sindh** was ruled by kings of the **Sudra** caste, and the **Punjab** and **Multan** formed one kingdom.

The **Chalukya** dynasty rose into importance in the middle of the sixth century. They seem to have been **Rajputs** from the north imposing their rule on the **Dravidian** inhabitants of the **Dekkan**. Their capital was at **Vatapi** (the modern **Badami**). The **Pallavas**, between the **Kistna** and **Godaveri** (see map 7), were driven from their homes by the **Chalukyas**; but the **Pallavas** of **Kanchi** struggled eagerly for their liberty, and victory inclined now to one side, now to the other.

After Harsha's death (c. 648) India became once more a medley of petty states, but, except for the merely local incursion of the **Arabs** into **Sindh**, was free from foreign invasion till the beginning of the eleventh century.

Much of our information of the political state of India at that time we owe to the report of the travels of the Chinese pilgrim **Yuan Chwang**.²

¹ Smith, *op. cit.*, chapters xii, xiii, xv.

- In identifying the places mentioned by the Chinese pilgrim, and in tracing out his route we have used the maps compiled by Vivien de Saint-Martin, A. Cunningham, and V. A. Smith in Watters' *Commentary on the travels*, as well as the geographical notes of the same scholars, of S. Julien and of T. Watters. Several of the sites of these ancient places cannot yet be fixed with certainty. But as the names often occur in history we have marked them on the map, and expressed the uncertainty of the actual sites by marks of interrogation.





10. India in A.D. 1022

At the end of the tenth and the beginning of the eleventh century India was again disturbed by foreign invaders. About 992 Sabaktigin, the founder of the House of Ghazni in Afghanistan, took possession of the country as far as the Indus.¹ In 1022 the **Afghan Mohammedans** gained a permanent footing in India when Mahmud of Ghazni wrested the kingdom of Lahore from Jeipal II.

At that time Hindustan was ruled by many independent kings. But Mahmud of Ghazni defeated all the most important of them : Jeipal, the raja of Lahore, at Peshawar (1001) ; the rajas of **Bhatia**, **Multan**, and the united army of the kings of **Gwalior**, **Malwa**,² **Kalinjar** (Jejakabukti), **Kanauj**, **Delhi**, and **Ajmere** in the decisive battle at Peshawar or Parashara (1008). By plundering the Hindu shrines—especially those at Nagarkot in the Himalyas, Thaneswar, Muttra on the Jumna, and Somnath in Gujarat he acquired the name of the “idol breaker.”

The extensive region to the south of Bundelkhand, “which is now under the administration of the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces, nearly corresponds with the old kingdom of **Chedi**.”³

In the Dekkan the ancient **Chalukya** dynasty had been destroyed in the middle of the eighth century, but about the year 973 a scion of the old royal house restored the Chalukya kingdom and recovered most of the territory of the former dynasty. The capital of this kingdom was **Kalyan**.⁴

In the south the **Chola** rajas had risen into importance. Rajaraja the Great (985-1011) overthrew the Pallavas of Kanchi and conquered the kingdom of Vengi, thus putting an end to the independence of the Pallavas which had lasted for more than eight centuries. He added Kalinga to his dominions and in 1005 went so far as to annex Ceylon. He thus became the Lord Paramount of Southern India,⁵ ruling over nearly the whole of what is now the Madras Presidency, Ceylon, and a large part of Mysore.⁶ His son Rajendra Choladeva (1011-1052) extended his father's dominions as far as Orissa and Bengal, and maintained a powerful navy.⁷ The ancient Pandya kingdom was most probably tributary to the Cholas.⁸

The **Hoisala** or **Bellals** seem at this time to have occupied western Mysore and Malabar and to have supplanted the ancient Chera dynasty.⁹ Their capital was Dwara Samudra, the modern Halebid.¹⁰

¹ Elphinstone, *History of India*, 5th ed., p. 322.

² Malwa was ruled, at this time, by the famous Bhoja Paramara (1010-53), who had his capital at Dhara (see Smith op. cit., p. 317).

³ Smith, op. cit., p. 313.

⁴ *Ib.*, pp. 326, 328.

⁵ His capital was Tanjore. The walls of the great temple of that town, built at his command, are inscribed with the story of his victories (Smith, op. cit., p. 345).

⁶ Smith, op. cit., pp. 345, 357.

⁷ *Ib.*, p. 346.

⁸ *Ib.*, p. 338.

⁹ Meadows Taylor, *A Student's Manual of the History of India*, p. 71.

¹⁰ Smith, op. cit., p. 331.

11. India in A.D. 1236

This map shows the divisions of India at the death of Altamsh (1236), the greatest of the Slave kings. The whole of Hindustan was kept by him in various degrees of subordination ranging from complete subjection to partial dependence.

It will serve to make the map better understood if we briefly sketch the historical events in Hindustan down to this date.

The House of Ghazni, after flourishing for about 150 years, had been overthrown by the family of Ghor. Mohammed of Ghor (1186-1206) decided to conquer Hindustan which was then held by Rajput clans (see map 10): Delhi by the clan of **Tomara**, Ajmere by that of **Chouhan**. These two were united under one raja Prithvi, but at enmity with the **Rathors** of Kanauj and the **Baghelas** of Gujarat.¹ The result of this dissension was disastrous to both parties. For, though Mohammed Ghor was defeated by Prithvi in the battle of Tarain² (1191), he utterly routed the Rajput in the battle of Tarain (1192), slew him, and annexed his dominions. In the following year Mohammed defeated Jarchand, the Rathor raja of Kanauj, at Chadrawar (near Etawa), took Benares and Kanauj, and added the territories of the defeated prince to his own. Upon this the greater part of the Rathor clan retreated from Kanauj and founded the principality of **Marwar**. In the following year (1195) Gwalior was taken, and Kutb-ud-Din, Mohammed's Indian governor, invaded Gujarat or **Anhilwara**, took the capital, but could not secure possession of the country. In 1196 he took Kalinjar. **Behar** and **Bengal** (capital Gaur) were reduced about the same time. After the death of Mohammed Ghor, Kutb-ud-Din became independent ruler of India. His son-in-law and successor Altamsh (in 1225) obtained **Sindh**³ which had been conquered from the Sumera Rajputs by Nazir ud Din, another of Mohammed Ghor's generals. He also asserted his sovereignty over Behar and Bengal and reduced Ranthambor in Rajputana, Mandu and Ujjain in Malwa (1226-1232).⁴

The **Bellals** were still ruling in the south and had become very powerful.⁵ The Chalukya dynasty had come to an end about 1190, and their territory had been annexed by the Bellals in the south and by the **Yadavas** in the north.⁶ The **Chola** kingdom had in the thirteenth century lost much of its former splendour.⁷ **Pandya** was recovering its independence.⁸ **Telingana** was ruled by the Narupti dynasty whose capital was Warangal.⁹

¹ Sindh was ruled by the Sumera clan of Rajputs (Meadows Taylor, pp. 76, 156).

² Also called Tatawari—between Karnah and Thaneshwar.

³ The Sumera (Samma) Rajputs driven from Sindh went over to Cutch and conquered that country (*Bombay Gazetteer*, Cutch, p. 132).

⁴ Elphinstone, op. cit., pp. 359-75.

⁵ Smith, op. cit., p. 331.

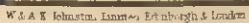
⁶ *Ib.*, p. 347.

⁷ *Ib.*, p. 330.

⁸ *Ib.*, p. 347.

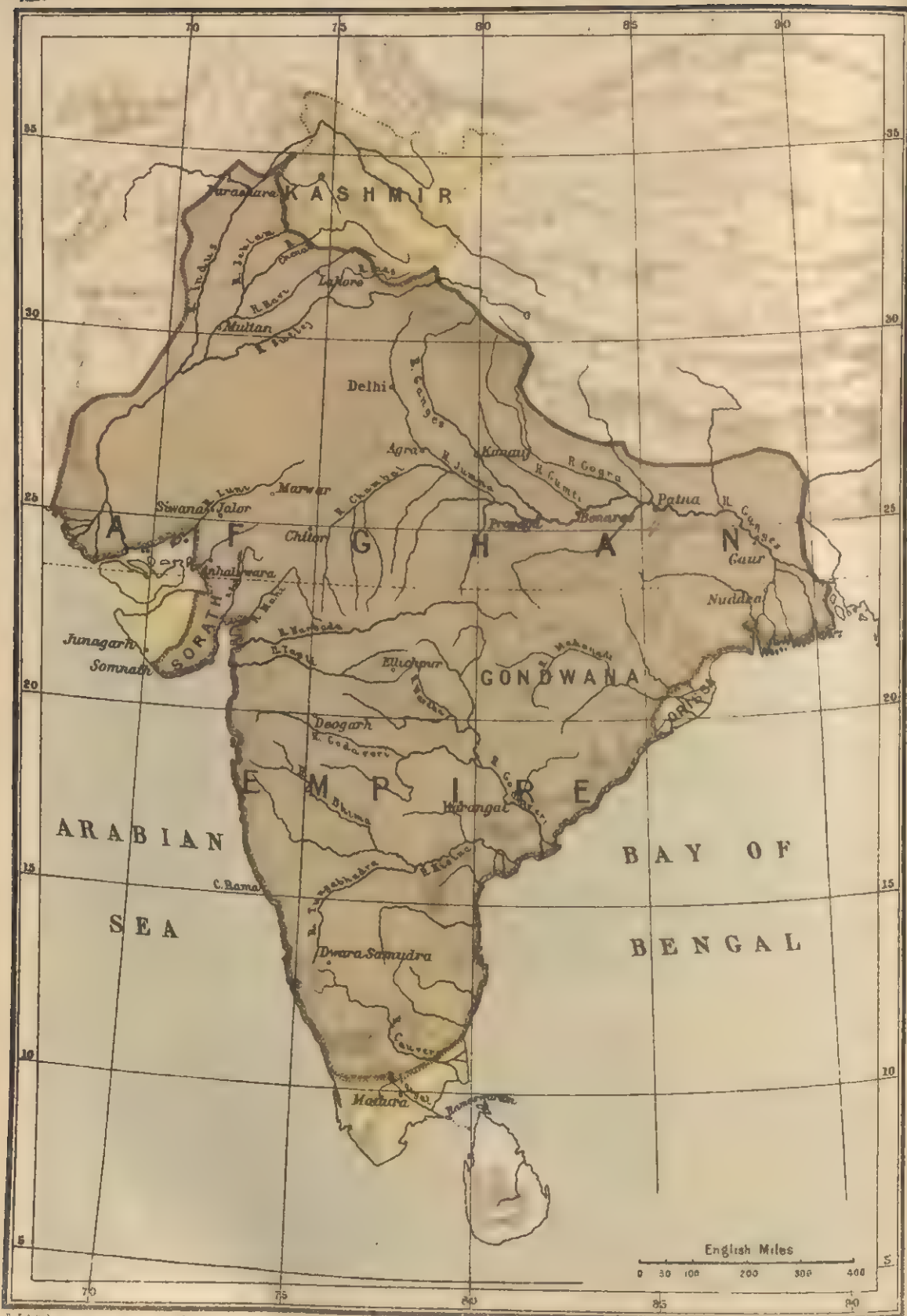
⁹ Meadows Taylor, op. cit., p. 73.

11.



Date.....

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12. India in A.D. 1318

About a century later (1318) the whole of India lay subject to the **Mohammedan Afghans or Pathans** in various degrees of dependency.

The four successors of Altamsh had made no political acquisitions, and the dynasty of the Slave kings (1206-90) had given way to that of the Khiljis (1290-1320).

The vigorous and talented Alla ud Din, nephew of Jalal ud Din, the first Khilji ruler (1290-5), invaded the Dekkan in 1294 and forced Ramachandra, the **Yadava** raja of Deogarh, to cede Ellichpur.¹ In 1297 he finally subjugated **Anhilwara** (or Gujarat), whose raja had reasserted his independence, and in the same and the following years Somnath and Sorath, the eastern part of the Kathiawar peninsula, were reduced,² while Cutch and the north-western part of Kathiawar preserved their independence. In 1303 Chitor³ was taken after a brave defence. Jalor and Siwana were reduced in 1309.⁴ From 1309-11 Malik Kafur, Alla ud Din's general, undertook his famous Dekkan campaign. In 1309 the raja of **Warangal** made his submission and undertook to pay a permanent tribute.⁵ In the same year Ramachandra of **Deogarh** once more submitted to Malik Kafur.⁶ In 1310 this general invaded the **Bellal** (or Hoisala) **kingdom**, took the raja prisoner, and reduced the whole of the eastern territory.⁷ In 1312 Malik Kafur put the Yadava raja to death and compelled the princes of **Maharashtra** and Karnata to pay tribute.⁸ In 1318 Khusru Khan, a converted Hindu and general of Mubarak, the last Khilji, conquered **Malabar**.⁹ In the same year a revolt led by Harapala, the last of the **Yadavas**, was suppressed, and Harapala was flayed alive.¹⁰

Thus the power of the Mohammedans was felt throughout India. **Kashmir** in the north, **Orissa** in the east, **Cutch** and **Junagarh** in the west, and perhaps the extreme south¹¹ of the peninsula alone retained their independence.

¹ Elphinstone, *op. cit.*, pp. 286, 287; Smith, *op. cit.*, p. 332.

² *Bombay Gazetteer*, Kathiawar, p. 284.

³ Founded after the Mohammedan conquest by the raja of Ayodhya (Oudh).

⁴ Elphinstone, *op. cit.*, p. 396.

⁵ *Ib.*, p. 396.

⁶ Smith, *op. cit.*, p. 332.

⁷ *Ib.*, p. 396.

⁸ Elphinstone, *op. cit.*, p. 397.

⁹ *Ib.*, p. 401.

¹⁰ *Ib.*, p. 400; Smith, p. 331.

¹¹ R. Sewall in *A Forgotten Empire* (p. 42) corrects the erroneous contention that Malik Kafur erected a mosque at Rameswaram. The mosque was erected on the Malabar coast, and he suggests that Cape Rama, south of Goa, may be the place in question.

13. India in A.D. 1398

Large though the **Afghan Empire** was in 1318, it was already doomed to dissolution. Two causes mainly brought about its downfall: the inroads of the Moghuls from the north west and the want of cohesion among provinces which had yielded only an imperfect submission. Tribute, especially in the south, was given only when exacted by the emperor or his generals at the head of an army.

Ghyas ud Din Tughlak (1320-5) strengthened the frontiers against the Moghuls and reduced Warangal and Bednor once more. But under his unfortunate, if not mad, son Mohammed Tughlak and his still more incapable successors province after province was lost. **Bengal** and **Telingana** became independent in 1340. A number of dissatisfied Moghul nobles founded in 1347 the kingdom of **Bahmini** in the Dekkan, whose first ruler was Hassan Gango Bahmini. South of the Kistna and Tungabhadra the princes of **Vijayanagar** reigned supreme. **Jainpur** threw off its allegiance in 1394. **Gujarat** became practically independent in 1394, and the same applies to the kingdoms of **Khandesh** and **Malwa**.¹

The most powerful of these states were Bahmini and Vijayanagar. In 1398 Bahmini then governed by the famous and mighty Firoze Shah Bahmini (1397-1422), extended itself over the western part of Telingana;² the frontier towards Gondwana ran either along the Wardha or the Wainganga river; Berar was its most northerly province; on the west the Ghauts formed the boundary, the petty rajas of the Konkan being independent; the ports of Chaul and Dabul were the doors of communication between this kingdom and the non-Indian world. The rich plain bounded by the Kistna and Tungabhadra rivers was an object of contention between Bahmini and Vijayanagar, and its strong fortresses Raichur and Mudgal were held alternately by either party.³

About 1344 the kings of Telingana, Dwara Samudra, Anagundi, and other Hindu princes of the south formed a league to stem the tide of Mohammedan invasion and to preserve or acquire independence. Of these Telingana remained independent,⁴ while all the chiefs of southern India from the banks of the Kistna and Tungabhadra submitted to the sway of the king of Anagundi—a small state which in less than a century grew into the mighty empire of **Vijayanagar**, with its capital bearing the same name.⁵ About 1398 Goa and Dharwar and the surrounding districts belonged to Vijayanagar,⁶ while Mudgal and Raichur were then in the hands of the Bahmini Sultan.⁸

Gujarat (capital Patan), **Malwa** (capital Mandu), **Khandesh** (capital Thalnaer), **Jainpur** (capital of the same name), and **Bengal** (capital Gaur), were under Afghan sultans. The tribes of **Gondwana** were united under one Nersingh of Kherla who in 1398 and 1399 was at war with Bahmini and agreed to pay tribute.⁹ **Sindh** was ruled by the Jam family of Sumera Rajputs, who about the end of the fourteenth century embraced the Mohammedan faith. They paid tribute to Delhi till 1430 when they declared their independence.¹⁰ The **upper Tapti valley** was in the possession of the descendants of the ancient cowherd kings who were then independent.¹¹ Though **Kashmir** had not been conquered by the sword of the Mohammedans and retained its independence, the ruling dynasty since 1326 were Moslems.¹² The western part of **Kathiawar** and **Cutch** were still independent under Hindu chiefs. In **Orissa** also an independent Hindu dynasty was in power.

While India was thus divided into many kingdoms, weakening each other by incessant warfare, the cruel and wily Tamerlane, who had unified the Moghul hordes and conquered Persia, Transoxonia, and other states of Central Asia, burst upon the remaining portion of the Afghan Empire. The vanguard of the Moghul host under Pir Mohammed took Multan and Talamba. Tamerlane himself left Kabul in August, 1398, crossed the Indus at Dinkot,¹³ marched to the Jehlum and down its banks to Talamba, was joined on the Sutlej by Pir Mohammed, and took Adjudin, Bhatnair, and Samana, slaughtering the inhabitants of every town he passed. Mahmud Tughlak (1394-1412), the Emperor, fled to Gujarat, Delhi surrendered, and Tamerlane was publicly proclaimed Emperor of India. Having plundered and slaughtered the people of Delhi, the Moghul marched to Meerut, crossed the Ganges, and proceeded up its banks to the foot of the Himalayas. He then marched along the foot of the mountains to Jammu, turned to the south, and left India by the same route by which he had entered, leaving anarchy, famine, and pestilence behind him.¹⁴

¹ Elphinstone, op. cit., pp. 406-14. ² Ferishta (Scott, i., p. 69). ³ Meadows Taylor, op. cit., p. 161 and *passim*.

⁴ Its boundaries in 1398 against Bahmini and Gondwana, as given in the map, are only problematical.

⁵ Hariharsha II (1379-99) assumed imperial titles calling himself "Maharajadraya" (R. Sewell, op. cit., p. 48).

⁶ R. Sewell, op. cit., pp. 45, 46. ⁷ *Ib.*, pp. 45, 49. ⁸ *Ib.*, p. 52. ⁹ Ferishta (Scott, i. pp. 79, 81).

¹⁰ Meadows Taylor, op. cit., p. 157. ¹¹ *Ib.*, p. 147. ¹² *Ib.*, p. 157. ¹³ The site of Dinkot is uncertain. Most probably it is south of the Salt Range (see Elphinstone, p. 414, note 21). ¹⁴ Elphinstone, op. cit., pp. 414-7.

INDIA in 1525.

14.



14. India in A.D. 1525

After Tamerlane's departure from India, there was for a time neither Emperor nor Empire of Delhi. The Sayids (1414-50) had little authority outside Delhi, and the last of the line surrendered his claims to Behlol Lodi (Emperor 1450-88), who had occupied the whole of the Punjab. That ruler added **Jaunpur** to his dominions in 1478. His successor Sikandar Lodi (1488-1517-18) reannexed **Behar** and extended his territories in the direction of **Bundelkhand**; but his dominions, as represented on map 14, were rather "a congeries of nearly independent principalities, jaghirs, etc.," than a compact monarchy. Sikandar's son Ibrahim (1517-18-1526) disgusted his followers by his pride and cruelty. In the eastern part of his dominions one Derya Khan Lodi asserted his independence, while in the west Daulat Khan Lodi, the governor of Lahore, rose in arms against his sovereign. Thus matters stood when Babur invaded India.¹

The **Rajput** princes had recovered their independence and acknowledged Sanga, the powerful ruler of Marwar and Ajmere as their leader.² **Malwa**, though still independent, was in 1526 annexed to Gujarat.³ The kings of **Gujarat** had subdued western Kathiawar, including Junagadh (or Girnar) and Cutch.⁴ The old capital had been abandoned and a new one (Ahmadabad) built by Ahmad Shah (1411-43).⁵ Malik Nasir of **Khandesh** in 1399 captured Asirgarh and built the strong forts of Zainabad and Burhanpur.⁶—At the time of Babur's invasion **Sindh** was in possession of Shah Hussein Arghun of **Multan**.⁷ In **Gondwana** Sanyam Shah of Mandla about this time extended his kingdom over fifty-two districts comprising the country now known as Bilaspur, Sagar, and Damoh on the Vindhyan plateau; Hoshangabad, Narsinghpur, and Jabalpur in the Nerbada valley; Mandla and Seoni in the Satpura highlands. The rest of the country was governed by other independent chiefs, e.g., those of Chattisgarh, Ratanpur, and Chanda.⁸

The Bahmini kingdom attained great power under Firoze Shah (1397-1422) and his brother Ahmad Shah (1422-35). The latter built Ahmadabad Bidar (1426-32) on the site of an ancient Hindu capital.⁹ The Konkan was subdued and Goa taken from Vijayanagar in the years 1471-72.¹⁰ In 1477 Telingana was reduced.¹¹ The northern boundary of Telingana towards Orissa was not well defined.

At the end of the fifteenth century the Bahmini kingdom shared the fate of so many Indian kingdoms and was broken up into five smaller sultanates: At Ahmadabad **Bidar** the last representatives of the Bahmini dynasty were mere puppets in the hands of their ministers, the Berids, who were the real rulers in the districts round the old capital.—**Berar** (capital Gawilgarh) was independent under the Imad Shahi dynasty from 1484-1574, when it was annexed to the Ahmadnagar state.—**Bijapur** was ruled by the Adil Shahi dynasty from 1489-1686, when it was incorporated into the Moghul Empire by Aurangzib. The Nizam Shahi dynasty held sway over **Ahmadnagar** from 1489-1637, when its last representative was sent as a state prisoner to Gwalior.—**Golconda** was under the Kutb Shahi dynasty from 1512-1687, when it was annexed by Aurangzib.

The limits of these states may roughly be given as follows:—**Bijapur** extended from the Nira river in the north to the Kistna in the south, and from the Bhima in the east to the sea-coast, from Goa to Bombay, in the west.¹² **Ahmadnagar** comprised the western part of Berar and the country round Daulatabad as far west as the Ghats; **Golconda** included the country between the lower and middle Kistna and Godaveri rivers and an undefined tract north-east of the Godaveri; **Berar** extended from the Injadri (or Satpura) mountains to the Godaveri, on the west it bordered Ahmadnagar and Khandesh, about the middle of the 76° of eastern longitude, on the east its limits are uncertain.¹³ The boundaries of **Bidar** towards the east and west were ill defined.

While the Mohammedan kingdoms of the Dekkan were thus divided, all southern India was still under the sway of the king of **Vijayanagar** (Krishna Deva, 1509-30). The chiefs of Seringapatam, Calicut, and others were his vassals, though they were treated by the Portuguese as kings.¹⁴ The Raichur Doab was, at the time represented by the map, in the possession of Krishna Deva.¹⁵

In 1524 Cham Raj Bole either constructed or repaired a fort in the south, to which he gave the new name Mahesh Asur, now called **Mysore**, a name which figures largely on the pages of subsequent history.¹⁶

The **Portuguese** had by this time secured a firm footing in India, having taken Goa in 1510.

¹ Elphinstone, op. cit. pp. 417-21. ² *Ib.*, p. 431; Sanga also held the eastern part of Malwa as far as Bhilsa and Chanderi (*ib.*, p. 431). ³ Meadows Taylor, op. cit., p. 145. ⁴ *Bombay Gazetteer*, Kathiawar, p. 288. ⁵ *Ib.*, Cutch, p. 135. ⁶ Meadows Taylor, op. cit., pp. 135, 136. ⁷ *Bombay Gazetteer*, Khandesh, p. 244. ⁸ Meadows Taylor, op. cit., p. 158. ⁹ *Central Provinces Gazetteer*, Intro., lxxiii, lxxiv. ¹⁰ Ferishta (Scott, i, p. 106). ¹¹ *Ib.*, pp. 155-7. ¹² *Ib.*, p. 168. ¹³ The capital Ahmadnagar was founded by Ahmad Nizam Shah in 1490 (see Meadows Taylor, op. cit., p. 207). ¹⁴ G. U. Pope, *A Text-book of Indian History*, iv., 23. ¹⁵ Elphinstone, op. cit., p. 761. ¹⁶ R. Sewell, op. cit., p. 122. ¹⁷ *Ib.*, pp. 140, 166. ¹⁸ M. Wilks, *History of Mysore*, i, p. 22.

15. The Portuguese Power in the East at its Zenith (1550-1600 A.D.)¹

A just appreciation of the power of the Portuguese in India is only possible, if we consider their Indian possessions in connection with the rest of their dominions in the east, and remember that theirs was a maritime supremacy established to secure their trade.

Their very first expedition to India under Vasco da Gama was a trading expedition. But on their arrival they found the Indian export trade entirely in the hands of Arab merchants. These "Moors," as they were called, obtained their wares from Africa, India, Malacca, China, and the Moluccas, and carried them, by way of the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf, to Egypt, Turkey, and Persia, whence they found their way to Europe.² These were the commercial rivals the Portuguese had to deal with. First then only to hold their ground against these "Moors," and later on to secure the monopoly of the trade at sea, which they gradually acquired, they built fort after fort along the seaboard which surrounds the eastern seas. These forts exacted due respect from the native rulers, served them as naval bases for their fleets, and dominated important straits where they levied toll on all passing ships.

Map 15 represented this maritime Supremacy of the Portuguese in the second half of the sixteenth century, when it was at its highest.

The first Portuguese fort was erected at Cochin in 1503. In 1504 Zanzibar was made tributary, and in 1505 forts were built at Mozambique, Sofala, and Kilwa on the African coast, and at Cannanore in India. In 1507 Socotra was temporarily occupied and a fort erected. In the same year the Sultan of Muscat was made tributary. In 1510 Albuquerque took Goa and made it the capital of the Portuguese possessions, in 1511 he conquered Malacca, and in 1514 he occupied Ormuz. In 1518 Colombo was taken. In 1522 the Portuguese fortified Ternate, which became their chief station in the Moluccas. Fortifications were erected at Chaul in 1524. In 1534 Bahadur Shah of Gujarat ceded Bassein and the Bombay islands to the Portuguese, and gave permission to build a fort at Diu, which was completed in 1535.

In 1557 Macao was founded on a promontory south of the estuary of the Canton River. It became the base for the ships trading with China and Japan. No fort, however, was erected before 1615. In 1559 the Portuguese occupied Daman. In 1560 Jaffna was made tributary and a fort erected on Manar Island. Towards the close of the century (1597) the King of Spain and Portugal³ was proclaimed King of Ceylon. The interior, however, remained practically independent. Forts were erected at Muscat towards the close of the sixteenth century, at Trincomali in 1623, and at Batticaloa in 1629.

Thus in the second half of the sixteenth century the Portuguese were supreme in the Indian seas. They controlled the important Straits of Malacca and Ormuz, compelled the traders of other nations to buy their passports, and their fleets cruised about to uphold their authority. But with the opening of the seventeenth century the English and the Dutch, Spain's enemies in Europe, began to dispute the superiority of the kingdoms of the United Peninsula. About the year 1600 the Dutch established themselves in the Moluccas, and subsequently excluded the Portuguese from the China Sea. In 1622 Ormuz surrendered to the combined forces of the English and Persians. In 1639 the Dutch conquered Batticaloa, and in the following year Trincomali and Galle. Malacca fell into their hands in 1641. About the middle of the seventeenth century the Portuguese on the Coromandel Coast were supplanted by the French, the English (who settled at Madras) and the Dutch (who took Negapatam in 1658). In 1656 Colombo surrendered to the Dutch, who by the capture of Manar and Jaffna in 1658 obtained possession of the whole of Ceylon. Bombay was ceded to the English crown in 1661. In the same year Quilon was occupied by the Dutch, who took Cochin and Cannanore in 1663. The "Moors" too reasserted themselves. Muscat fell into the hands of the Arabs in 1650, and in 1699 they took Mombassa. In India the Portuguese fought without success against the Mahrattas, who overran Salsette (north of Bombay) in 1737. In 1739 Bassein, and in 1740 Chaul were surrendered to them. By this time all the Portuguese possessions in the east were lost with the exception of Goa, Daman, and Diu in India, the greater part of the African coast, and Macao in China.

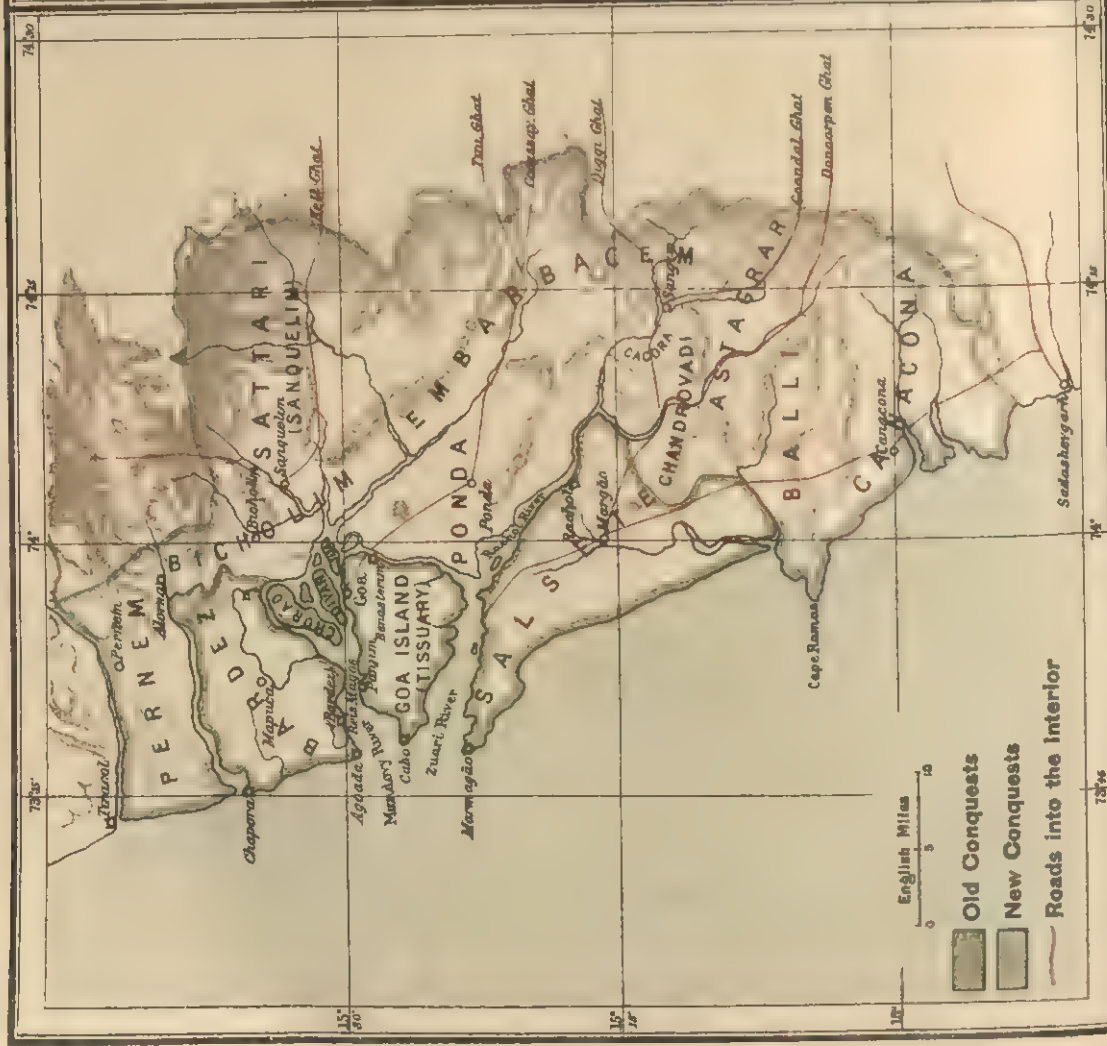
¹ These notes are drawn chiefly from Danvers, *The Portuguese in India*, 2 vols. The limits of the Portuguese sphere of influence have, of course, been fixed only approximately.

² From China and Tartary the trade routes went by way of Samarkand, and from the north of India by Bamian and Termez to Sultanieh, Tabriz (or Tauris), Aleppo and the Mediterranean, or to Brussa and to Constantinople. By sea the merchandise from China and the Spice Islands was carried by Malacca to Calicut and Cambay. Then the routes divided. The first went by Ormuz either overland to Sultanieh and then to Constantinople, or by sea to Bassorah, and then by Baghdad and Damascus to the Mediterranean, where the European merchants, notably Venetians, received the goods in the ports of Beirut, Haleb, and Tripoli. The other route went from Cambay and Calicut to Aden. Then it branched off to the south along the African coast and to the north by way of Jeddah either to Mecca and Damascus, or to Tor, Suez, Alexandria and the Mediterranean. (Cf., Dr. W. Heid, *Geschichte des Levantenhandels im Mittelalter*.)

³ Portugal and Spain were united under the Spanish king from 1580-1640.



16. The Territory of Goa.



17.

The Portuguese Provinces of the North.



17. The Portuguese Provinces of the North

Bassein and its territories were ceded to the Portuguese by Bahadur, king of Gujerat, in 1534. They included Bassein district, the islands of Salsete, Trombay, Caranja, Elephanta, and Bombay. Daman with its territory was also granted to the Portuguese by the Gujerat Government. In 1559 Portugal took possession of the town and the district in the north as far as Bulsar and in the south down to the Bassein district. The Daman territory does not seem to have stretched farther inland than the foot of the hills which form the outlyers of the Western Ghats.

In 1521 leave was obtained from the Nizam Shah to erect a fort at Chaul. The territory belonging to it does not seem ever to have been more than a very small strip of land between the fort and the estuary.

16. The Territory of Goa

Goa was taken for the second time by Albuquerque in 1510 (25th November). The land then permanently occupied included the islands of Goa, Chorão, Diver, and Jua. The lands of Salsette and Bardez were temporarily occupied by the Portuguese in 1510 and 1520. Ibrahim I of Bijapur made them over permanently to Portugal in 1543. And, although Bijapur troops overran these districts repeatedly, Ali I, of Bijapur again guaranteed them to Portugal in 1571.

In 1754 the Bhonsle acknowledged the Portuguese claims on Alorna, Bicholim, Pernem and Sattari, which, though subsequently farmed out to the Mahrattas for some time, were finally surrendered to the Portuguese in 1788.

In 1791 the Portuguese acquired Ponda, Zambaulim (i.e., the provinces of Embarbacem, Chandrovadi, Balli, Astagarar, and Cacora), Cabo de Rama and Canacora by treaty with the raja of Sonda, then a fugitive at Goa.

18. India in A.D. 1605

In 1504 Prince Babur, a descendant of Tamerlane and Ghenghis Khan, acquired the kingdom of Kabul, and in 1522 added Kandahar to his possessions. At the invitation of Daulat Lodi, a discontented governor of the Punjab, and encouraged by Sanga, the rana of Chitor, Babur invaded India and defeated and killed Ibrahim Lodi in the first battle of Panipat (1526), occupied Delhi, and took Agra. The rana of Chitor at first offered him assistance with a view of recovering for himself the ancient Rajput supremacy over Hindustan. But discovering that Babur intended to establish an empire of his own, he turned against the invader and marched against him at the head of his feudal lords, but suffered a defeat at Khârua near Agra (1527). In the following year the important Rajput fortress of Chanderi was taken, and the opposition of the Hindus was crushed. Babur, before his death (1530), brought the whole of Hindustan under his power. Humayun, his son and successor, was, after nine years' reign, defeated at Chausa on the Ganges and more decisively in the next year near **Kanauj** by Sher Shah, an Afghan, and Hindustan came once more under Afghan rulers from 1540 to 1555. Humayun fled to Persia, and re-established his authority in Afghanistan. In 1555 he invaded India and, with the help of Persian troops, won the battle of Sirhind. He was succeeded by his son, the famous Akbar (1556-1605). In 1556 the second battle of Panipat was fought, in which the Afghan power in Hindustan was for ever broken and the **Moghul supremacy** established. In the course of his long reign Akbar conquered all Hindustan and extended his empire into the Dekkan. Gondwana, however, seems to have been only loosely connected with the Empire. Akbar gained over the Rajputs by inducing them to recognise him as their overlord. But the rana of Chitor, who had hitherto been the feudal superior of all the Rajputs, scorned the idea of acknowledging a suzerain and organised a resistance. Akbar attacked Chitor and forced it to surrender, while Uday Singh, the rana, fleeing to the Aravalli hills, founded Udaipur where he succeeded in maintaining his independence.¹

Akbar divided his realm into provinces or "subahs" ruled by viceroys or "subahdars" while the districts were placed in the hands of deputies or "nawabs." The list of Akbar's provinces is as follows:² 1. Kabul—2. Lahore—3. Multan—4. Delhi—5. Agra—6. Oudh—7. Allahabad—8. Ajmere—9. Gujarat—10. Malwa—11. Behar—12. Bengal—13. Khandesh—14. Berar—15. Ahmadnagar—16. Orissa—17. Kashmir—18. Sindh.

The four Dekkani sultans had hitherto lived in constant warfare among themselves and against the princes of Gujarat, Malwa, Khandesh, and Vijayanagar; but at length they became united against the mighty Hindu supremacy of the South, and at Talikot (1565) fought a decisive battle, which was followed by the utter and ruthless destruction of Vijayanagar. The surviving princes of the Vijayanagar dynasty retired first to Penaconda³ and, when that security failed them, to Chandragiri.⁴ But their supremacy had passed away. They sank down to the level of merely local rajas, while one after another the chiefs of the south assumed their independence, only a few of them still nominally acknowledging the Vijayanagar kings as their overlords.⁵

Berar was annexed by Ahmednagar in 1572⁶ and Bidar by Bijapur in 1529.

Bijapur at Akbar's time was bounded on the north by the Nira river, and (before the southern conquests) extended along the coast from Bankot to Cape Rama; on the east the districts of Raichur (Eedgeer), Mulkaid, and Bidar divided it from Golconda; Akalkot, Naldrag, and Kalyan became frontier-provinces alternately overrun by the troops of the various adjacent states.⁷ In the south the principal strongholds taken possession of were Adoni (Udri), Dharwar, and Bankapur; while many chiefs south of the Tungabhadra, as far down as Mysore (reduced in 1593) and Malabar (subdued in 1593), became tributary to the Adil Shah.⁸

The kings of **Golconda** also occupied large tracts south of the Kistna, as Karnul, Gandikot, Nandial, etc.,⁹ stretching probably as far south as the river Pennar.

Though Akbar had reduced **Ahmadnagar** and imprisoned its lawful prince, Malik Amber, an Abyssinian nobleman, set up a rival prince and governed in his name the remaining territory of the Nizam Shahi dynasty, holding his own against the imperial armies. He founded the town of Kirki (afterwards Aurangabad), but his chief stronghold was Daulatabad. The boundaries of his territories were continually shifting, but seem to have extended to the Arabian Sea.

In 1589 Ibrahim Kutb Shah founded the town of Haidarabad.¹⁰

¹ Elphinstone, op. cit., books vii, viii, ix.

² G. U. Pope, *Text-book of Indian History*, iii, § 6, 28.

³ R. Sewell, op. cit., p. 201.

⁴ *Ib.*, p. 217.

⁵ The present raja of Anagundi in the Nizam's dominions is the modern representative of the royal house of Vijayanagar (R. Sewell, op. cit., pp. 215, 216).

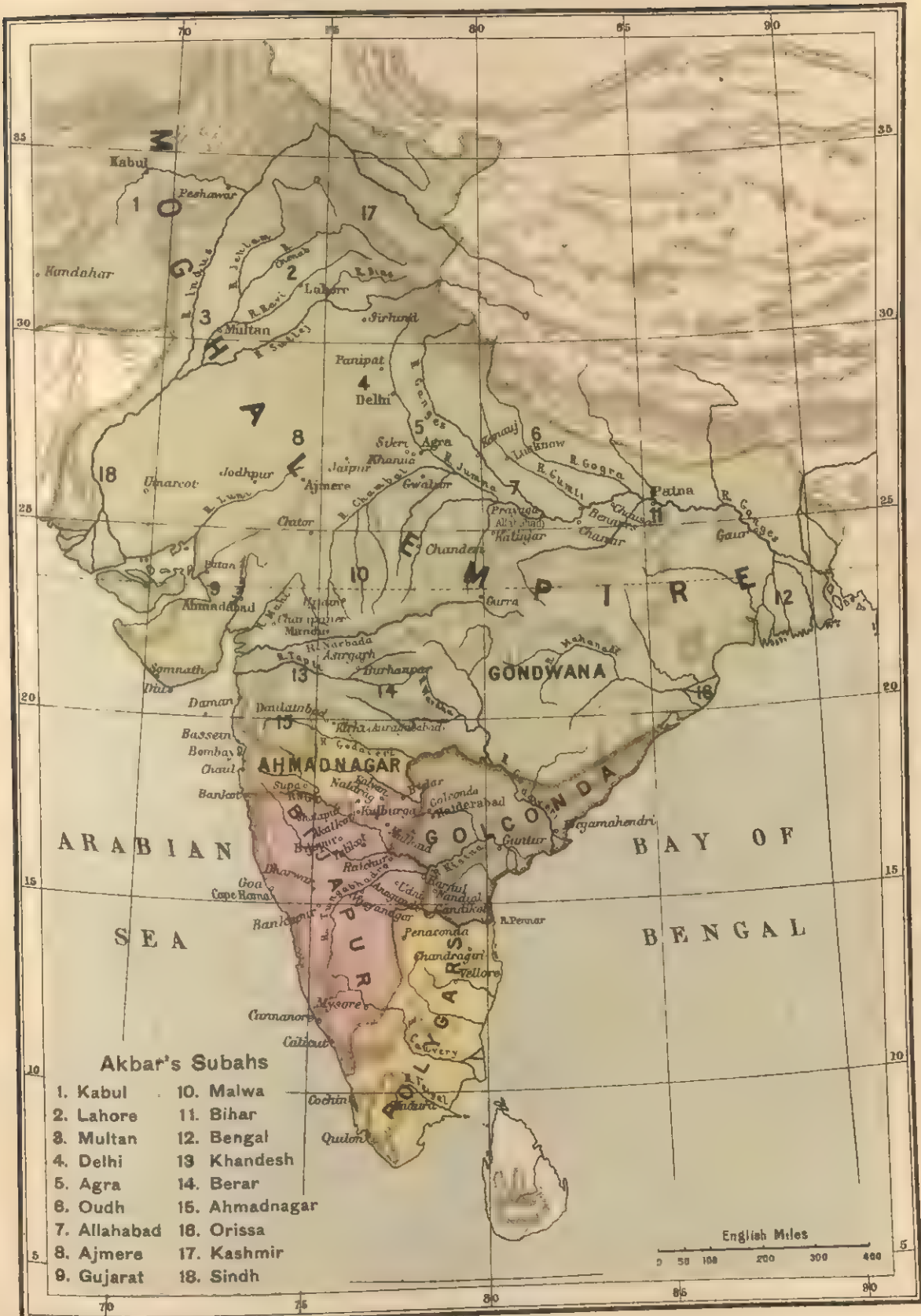
⁶ Meadows Taylor, op. cit., p. 309.

⁷ Grant Duff, *History of the Mahrattas*, i, pp. 65-6.

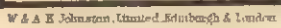
⁸ Ferishta (Scott, i, pp. 300-4, 328-9).

⁹ R. Sewell, op. cit., p. 218.

¹⁰ *Ib.*, p. 218.



19.



19. India in A.D. 1700

Map 15 shows the utmost limits of the **Moghul Empire** under Aurangzib (1658-1707).

In 1637 the last remnant of the Ahmadnagar kingdom was annexed by Shah Jahan (1627-58). Aurangzib conquered Bijapur in 1686, Golconda in 1687, and all the territory south of the Kistna which had been dependent on these two kingdoms.¹

Still Aurangzib was unable to overcome the disorders which prevailed in his vast realm. The **Rajputs** and the **Jats** near Agra were in open hostility.² The Moghul army was so demoralised that Vakinkera, a small mud-fort in the Dekkan, could only be subdued after the arrival of the emperor himself; and even then the chief who held it contrived to escape to Shorapur.³ Kabul was always waiting an opportunity to throw off its allegiance.⁴ The Polygars in the south paid tribute only under compulsion.⁵ The **Mahrattas** were plundering and burning Malwa, Gujarat, and the Dekkan, which by incessant warfare had been reduced almost to a desert. The Moghul armies took fort after fort from the Mahrattas, but the latter were constantly retaking them, and Aurangzib with his degenerated troops was unable to subdue these stalwart warriors who, when hard pressed, retired to their mountain fastnesses and defied generals, princes, and emperor alike.

Thus the overthrow of Bijapur and Golconda, which had so long kept down the Mahrattas (to Berghis), proved fatal to the Moghul empire, and enabled the Mahratta kingdom to rise on its ruins during the following century.

The year 1700 is a convenient time for enumerating the European possessions so far acquired in India.

The **Portuguese** were the first on the scene. From the landing of Vasco da Gama in 1498 near Calicut to the appearance of the Dutch and English at the end of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth century, they had a monopoly of trade between Europe and India. They took Goa in 1510, fortified Chaul in 1521, acquired Diu, Bassein, and the Bombay Islands in 1534, and Daman in 1559, all of which except Bombay they still possessed in 1700.

The chief settlements of the **Dutch** founded in the seventeenth century were: Negapatam, Sadras, Pulikat, Bimlipatam, and Cochin.⁷

Although the **English East India Company** (founded 1600) had established factories at Surat (1611), Calicut, Masulipatam, and other places, they built their first fort (St. George) at Madras only in 1639.⁸ Bombay, given in 1661 to Charles II as part of the marriage portion of Catherine of Braganza, was finally handed over to the English East India Company in 1669.⁹ Fort St. David (south of Madras) was acquired by purchase in 1691.¹⁰ In 1696 the villages of Chuttanatti, Calcutta, and Govindpur were purchased from Azim-u-Shan, Aurangzib's grandson.¹¹

In 1700 the **French** possessed Masulipatam (1669), Pondicherry (1674), and Chandarnagar.¹² At about the same time the **Danes** held Tranquebar and Serampur.¹³

See also map 17. ¹ Elphinstone, op. cit., p. 668. ² Ib. p. 668 : Meadows Taylor, op. cit., p. 356.
³ pp. 633, 634. ⁴ See notes to 21. ⁵ See notes to 15-17. ⁶ G. U. Pope, op. cit., vii, 4.
The site was obtained by Mr. Francis Day from Sri Ranga Raya II of Chandragiri, a descendant of the Vijayanagar kings (R. Sewell, op. cit., p. 221). ⁷ Danvers, *The Portuguese in India*, ii, pp. 331, 343
G. U. Pope, op. cit., viii, 6. ⁸ Ib., vii, 6. ⁹ Ib., v, 7. ¹⁰ Ib., vi, 5

20. To Illustrate the Early Mahratta History

Maharashtra, the country of the Mahrattas, is bounded on the north by the Satpura mountains, and extends from Nandod on the west along those mountains to the Wainganga, east of Nagpur. The boundary follows the western bank of that river up to its confluence with the Wardha, whence it may be traced up the east bank of the Wardha to Manikgarh and then westward to Mahore. From this last place it passes in an irregular line to Goa. On the west the country is bounded by the ocean. The space about Surat, Broach, and Rajpipla, where Gujarati is spoken, may be excluded by drawing an imaginary line from Daman to the middle of Nandod district.¹⁴

The people of this country first rose into notice in the seventeenth century under Sivaji and became very powerful in the eighteenth century under the Peshwas.

The following notes are chiefly confined to territorial details:—

The **enam**¹⁵ of the Bhonsla family (from which Sivaji sprang) was at **Verole** near Ellora caves. Shaji Bhonsle first commanded a party of horse in the service of Murtiza Nizam Shah, sultan of Ahmadnagar, then entered the service of the emperor Shah Jahan, and eventually, in 1637, that of the Bijapur king,¹⁶ by whom he was confirmed in the possession of his family jaghir¹⁷ which

¹⁴ Grant Duff, *History of the Mahrattas*, i, p. 3. The spelling of names is altered.

¹⁵ Land free from all rent to Government.

¹⁶ Grant Duff, op. cit., p. 100.

¹⁷ Jaghirs are lands or assignments of revenue. There are two kinds. "The one is military, the other personal: the former is for the purpose of maintaining a body of troops for the service of the state, the latter is for the support of an individual or family. A jaghir is never, like an enam, entirely freehold; some service can by the original tenure be required" (Grant Duff, op. cit., ii, 638).

[continued overleaf]

consisted chiefly of **Puna** and **Sopa**.¹ For eminent service rendered by him in the Carnatic, the districts of **Indapur**, **Baramati**, and several of the **Mawals**, i.e., mountain-valleys near Puna, were added to his jaghir in the Dekkan.² In the Carnatic Shaji acquired in jaghir **Kolar**, **Bangalore**, **Uscota**, **Balapur** and **Sira**, and held likewise, in jaghir or otherwise, **Arni**, **Porto Novo**, and **Tanjore**.³ Shaji died in 1664.

Shaji's son Sivaji, born in 1627, was brought up at Puna. Wishing to become independent he led forth his hardy Mawalis and occupied the fort of Torna in 1646, built Rajgarh in 1647, obtained Kondaneh (to which he gave the name Singarh) in the same year, and in 1648 took ten other forts, among which were Lohgarh and Rajmach.⁴ As the Bijapur government now made Shaji responsible for the conduct of his son and kept him for years a prisoner at large at Bijapur, Sivaji abstained for a time from further aggressions.⁵ But on his father's release in 1655 he began again to capture existing hill forts and to erect new ones.⁶ When Aurangzib made war on Bijapur in 1657, he accepted Sivaji's services, allowed him to keep what he already possessed of Bijapur territory and at the end of the campaign even agreed to the Konkan being transferred to his management.⁷ In 1659 Panalla surrendered and Vishalgarh was taken by assault. In 1660 Sivaji took Dabul and its dependencies,⁸ and in 1662 occupied the territory of the deshmukhs of Wari.¹⁰

In 1662 Sivaji held sway over the Konkan from Kalyan to Goa, and the Ghauts (or Konkan Ghaut-Mahta) from the Bhima to the Warna.¹¹ On the death of his father in 1664 Sivaji assumed the title of raja and struck coins in his own name. He also possessed a fleet at that time.¹²

In 1665, as a result of an unsuccessful war with Aurangzib's generals, Sivaji relinquished whatever forts or territory he had taken from the Moghuls, and of the thirty-two forts taken or built by him on Bijapur territory he was only allowed to keep twelve, with the rest of his possessions as jaghir under the Emperor. He obtained, however, permission from Aurangzib to collect the fourth and the tenth of the revenue¹³ in certain districts of Bijapur.¹⁴ Sivaji soon recovered his lost possessions: Puna, Chakun, and Sopa in 1667,¹⁵ Singarh, Purandhar, Lohgarh, Karnala, Maholi, and Kalyan district in 1670.¹⁶ In 1668 Goleonda, and in 1670 Khandesh, agreed to pay chauth to the Mahrattas.¹⁷ In 1670 the forts Aundha, Pattah, Salher were taken, and a Moghul force defeated near the latter place.¹⁸ In 1672 many polygars in the northern Konkan were forced to join Sivaji.¹⁹ In the same year Sivaji retook Panalla, Satara, Parli, and other forts, and sent his fleet to reduce Karwar, Ankola and other places.²⁰ In 1674 he defeated the Bijapur army, assumed the insignia of royalty, and was enthroned at Raigarh.²¹ In 1676 he again took possession of the open country between Panalla and Tattora, and protected it by a series of forts (Vardangarh, Sadashivgarh and others).²²

In 1677 Sivaji invaded the Carnatic, took Vellore, and recovered all his father's jaghirs (Kolar, Bangalore, Uscota, Balapur, Sira), but in 1678 restored them all to his brother Venkaji on condition of receiving a share of the revenue.²³ In 1679 a Moghul army invaded Bijapur, but being hard pressed by Sivaji was forced to retreat.²⁴ For this timely service Sivaji was given the country round Kopal and Bellari and the sovereignty over Tanjore, his father's jaghir, and all the conquered districts in the south.²⁵ On the 5th April, 1680, Sivaji died.

To sum up with Grant Duff:²⁶ "Sivaji, at the time of his death, was in possession of the whole part of the **Konkan** extending from Gandavi to Ponda: with the exception of Goa, lower Chaul, Salsette, and Bassein, belonging to the Portuguese; ²⁷ Janjira in possession of the Abyssinians; and the English settlement on the island of Bombay. He had thannas²⁸ in **Karwar**, **Ankola**, and several places on the coast, where he shared the districts with the deshmukhs.²⁹ The chief of **Sonda** acknowledged his authority, and the rana of **Bednor** paid him an annual tribute. Exclusive of his possessions around **Bellari** and **Kopal**, his conquest in **Drawed** (i.e., south of India), his supremacy as well as share in **Tanjore**, and the jaghir districts of his father in the **Carnatic**, Sivaji occupied that tract of Maharashtra from the Hiranyakeshi river on the south, to the Indrayani river on the north, between Puna and Junir. The districts of **Sopa**, **Baramati** and **Indapur** were occasionally held, and always claimed by him as his paternal jaghir; and the line of forts, built from Tattora to Panalla, distinctly mark the boundary of his consolidated territory to the eastward. He, however, had a number of detached places. **Singnapur**, at the temple of Mahdeo, was his hereditary enam village; the fort of **Parneira**, near Daman, was rebuilt by Moro Trimmil; and his garrisons and thannas occupied a great part of **Buglana**, and several strong places in **Khandesh** and **Sangammere**."

¹ Grant Duff, op. cit., i, p. 101. ² *Ib.*, p. 104. ³ *Ib.*, pp. 168, 238. ⁴ *Ib.*, pp. 101, 18. ⁵ *Ib.*, p. 122.

⁶ *Ib.*, pp. 124-6. ⁷ *Ib.*, pp. 135-8. ⁸ *Ib.*, p. 148. ⁹ *Ib.*, p. 149. ¹⁰ *Ib.*, p. 158. ¹¹ *Ib.*, p. 160.

¹² *Ib.*, pp. 168-9. ¹³ Called respectively "chauth" and "surdeshmukhi" by Sivaji (Grant Duff, op. cit., p. 177). ¹⁴ Grant Duff, op. cit., i, pp. 176-7. ¹⁵ *Ib.*, p. 186. ¹⁶ *Ib.*, pp. 204-8.

¹⁷ *Ib.*, p. 188. ¹⁸ *Ib.*, p. 211. ¹⁹ *Ib.*, p. 214. ²⁰ *Ib.*, p. 219. ²¹ *Ib.*, p. 223. ²² *Ib.*, p. 228.

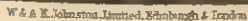
²³ *Ib.*, pp. 237-40. ²⁴ *Ib.*, pp. 244-8. ²⁵ *Ib.*, p. 248. ²⁶ *Ib.*, p. 253.

²⁷ The strip of land from Bassein to Daman also belonged to the Portuguese.

²⁸ Military posts at which the inferior revenue officers are stationed to protect the country, aid the police, and collect the revenue (Grant Duff, op. cit., p. 148).

²⁹ A kind of intermediate agents between the village patel and the raja (Grant Duff, op. cit., p. 31)

20.



To illustrate the Wars betw. the English and French
in the Carnatic, 1746-1763. 22



22. To Illustrate the Wars between the English and French in the Carnatic, A.D. 1746-63

Nizam ul Mulk, originally viceroy of the Dekkan and Carnatic provinces of the empire, had since 1723 become practically independent, though, even while waging war against the emperor, he professed obedience to him. He claimed sovereignty over the states and principalities south of the rivers Tungabhadra and Kistna, while the Mahrattas demanded tribute from the same. Many of these states were almost independent, and their chiefs assumed the title "nawab."¹

The territory of the nawab of Arcot consisted of Haidarabad Payeen Ghaut, and extended, after the acquisition of Trichinopoli and Madura (1732), down to Cape Comorin.²

The whole of Haidarabad Carnatic Bala Ghaut enlarged to the south, formed the principality of the nawab of Kurpa (Cuddapah).³

In 1743 Nizam ul Mulk recognised Morari Rao, the Mahratta, as chief of Gutti.⁴

The Patan chiefs of Karnul and Savanur also claimed the title nawab.⁵

The raja of Bednor seems to have been in possession of a considerable portion of the western Ghauts and the west coast.⁶

South of Bednor were the rajas of Coorg, Travancore, Cochin, and the chiefs of Malabar, all independent.

In Mysore sham rajas were nominated by Hindu and Mohammedan usurpers.⁷ Dindigul was acquired by this state in 1745.⁸

The boundaries of the possessions of the Patan nawab of Savanur and the raja of Sonda, cannot be clearly ascertained.⁹

The country between Bednor, Kurpa, Mysore, Savanur, and Gutti was probably subject to the chief of Sira.

The Mahrattas were continually encroaching from the north and west on the dominions of the Nizam. The frontier line to the west was ill defined. Northwards the Painganga formed (in 1751) the boundary. The districts along the east coast from the Chilka lake to the Gundakamma were called the Northern Circars.

From this time the province designated Arcot on the map, begins to be called "the Carnatic," and its ruler nawab of the Carnatic or of Arcot.

This was the group of states among which the English and French competed for supremacy in India. Except for two intervals of peace, each lasting three years, the contest was carried on without intermission from 1746 to 1763.

¹ Grant Duff, op. cit., i, p. 481.

² Wilks, op. cit., p. 154.

³ Ib., p. 141.

⁴ Grant Duff, op. cit., p. 505.

⁵ Wilks, op. cit., p. 163.

⁶ When annexed by Haidar (1763), Bednor extended to the west over the maritime province now named Kanara, and east to Hikalsera, twenty miles from Chitaldrug. As towns of this state are mentioned: Onore (Honawar), Mangalore, and Mudgiri (Wilks, op. cit., p. 276).

⁷ Wilks, op. cit., p. 145.

⁸ Ib., p. 214.

⁹ In those unsettled times the frontiers of the many little states were continually shifting.

21. Mysore, the Dominions of Chick Deo Raja Wadyar, A.D. 1704

Map 21 represents the growth of Mysore during 180 years, i.e., from 1524 till 1704. Since the downfall of Vijayanagar (1565) the chiefs of Mysore had been extending their power more and more by taking towns, forts, and villages, but had remained in some form of subjection, either to the viceroy of Vijayanagar who resided at Seringapatam, or to the Bijapur government, or to the Moghuls. A detailed list of the places taken may be found in Wilks's *History of Mysore* (vol. i, pp. 28-37, 131-2). Of the acquisitions of Chick Deo Raja (1672-1704) no fewer than forty-eight are enumerated. Among these Bangalore is the most important, though its possession seems to have been disputed by the chief of Sira. Not all the names of these places have been included in the map of Mysore; the boundaries of that state have, however, been traced according to their position on Mackenzie's map in Wilks's *History of Mysore*.

The map shows also the political condition of India south of the Kistna and Tungabhadra at the beginning of the eighteenth century.¹ The southernmost part of the Moghul Empire consisted then of two subahs, Haidarabad and Bijapur. To these belonged Haidarabad Carnatic and Bijapur Carnatic, which were subdivided into Bala Ghaut and Payeen Ghaut, so as to distinguish the countries above and below the passes.

Haidarabad Carnatic Bala Ghaut comprised: Cumbum, Gutti, Gandikot, Sidhaut, Gurramconda.² Haidarabad Carnatic Payeen Ghaut consisted of the whole country from Guntur to the Coleroon along the Coromandel Coast. This is afterwards known as the province of Arcot.

Bijapur Carnatic seems to have consisted of Bala Ghaut provinces only.³ The more important districts were Sira, Bangalore, Harpanhalli, Conderpi, Anagundi, Bednor (Nagar), Chitaldrug, and Mysore. The chiefs of most of these districts paid tribute under compulsion only.

The districts of Adoni (Udni), Ghazipur (Nandial), and Savanur Bankapur belonged to the province of Bijapur (not Carnatic).

The two Carnatics were governed by Zulfikar Khan till the death of Aurangzib, but they were in an unsettled condition.

¹ M. Wilks, *History of Mysore*, i, pp. 134-7.

² These, Gurramconda excepted, afterwards form the state of the nawab of Kurpa (Cuddapah), whose possessions extended along the back of the eastern Ghauts including most of the Baramahal (see maps 22 and 24).

³ Its Payeen Ghaut, including Vellore, Ginji, Tanjore (which was still held by the Mahrattas), and Trichinopoli, so far as it might be deemed a dependency, seems to have been included in the Haidarabad Carnatic Payeen Ghaut (Wilks, i, 136).

23. India in A.D. 1751

In 1751 the **Moghul Empire** had crumbled to pieces. At this time three powers were making their influence felt in India : the **Afghans**, the **French**, and the **Mahrattas**.

After Nadir Shah's assassination (1747) an **Afghan** chief Ahmad Shah Abdali became ruler over Afghanistan, Balkh, Sindh, and Kashmir.¹ In 1751 the emperor ceded to him the Punjab.²

Nizam ul Mulk (or Asaf Jah), whose independence in the provinces south of the Narbada had been acknowledged by the emperor, died in 1748. His death gave the **French** an opportunity of interfering in Indian affairs. Dupleix, who was then governor of Pondicherry (the chief French settlement in the south), managed so skilfully, that in 1751 he was acknowledged governor of all the country from the Kistna to Cape Comorin. The Nawab of Arcot was under his authority, and Bussy, with a French army, represented French interests at the Nizam's court at Aurangabad. Thus French influence was supreme in the south. At this time the English power was of but little account, being confined to the towns of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Fort St. David, and Devicota.

The **Mahrattas** had, especially under the vigorous administration of the Peshwas, extended their authority over the Konkan and the western part of the Dekkan down to the Tungabhadra. Berar, Gondwana, and Cuttack including Balasor (since 1751) were under the Mahratta chief Raguji Bhonsle, who in 1751 occupied the territory as far south as the Godavari.³ In Hindustan the territory of the Peshwa was bounded by the Ganges, while the Chambal formed the north-western boundary of the country ceded by Nizam ul Mulk in the convention of Seronji (1738).⁴ While the Mahrattas held the sovereignty over the countries just mentioned, they exercised another not less important influence over the whole of India. They had either obtained by imperial grant or assumed the right to collect chauth, i.e. the fourth part of the revenue, in Gujarat, the Dekkan, and the south of India, the provinces of Lucknow, Patna, and Bengal, Allahabad, Agra, and Ajmere.⁵ Yet the Mahrattas, at this time formed no united government. Ram Raja at Satara was a merely nominal raja, the actual power having been usurped by Balaji Baji Rao (1740-61), his Peshwa or Prime Minister, who resided at Puna. Again the Peshwa's power was much curbed by powerful Mahratta chiefs, the principal of whom were Raguji Bhonsle of Berar, Anand Rao Power of Dhar, Damaji Gaekwar, Mulhar Rao Holkar and Ranoji Sindhia in Malwa. Thus we can at the most speak only of a "**Mahratta Confederacy**."

At Mysore Nunjeraj, a Hindu minister, was the actual ruler, the raja being a mere figure-head. Its limits had by this time been extended towards the south.⁶

There remained under the emperor's direct authority only the upper Doab or country between the upper courses of the Ganges and Jumna, the country between the Jumna and the Sutlej, and Gujarat, which was still⁷ under a dependent Moghul viceroy. The **Rajputs** were virtually independent under the leadership of the rana of Udaipur and the rajas of Jodhpur and Jaipur.⁸

Oudh had become independent under Saadat Khan in 1724, **Bengal** and **Behar** under Aliverdi Khan in 1740, and **Rohilkhand**, the country east of the upper Ganges, was occupied by Ali Mahomed and his Afghans in 1744.⁹

¹ Elphinstone, op. cit., x, pp. 733-4.

² *Ib.*, p. 737.

³ Grant Duff, op. cit., i, pp. 501, 534.

⁴ Grant Duff, op. cit., pp. 383, 415, 501.

Ib., i, pp. 461, 502.

⁵ Wilks, op. cit., pp. 173, 214. See also map 22 for the geography of the south of that period.

Bombay Gazetteer, Gujarat, p. 385.

⁶ Pope, op. cit., iii, 15.

⁷ *Ib.*, iii, 15.



24. HAIDAR'S DOMINIONS in 1780.



To illustrate the four Mysore wars. (1784) 25.



25. To Illustrate the Four Mysore Wars, A.D. 1784

To avoid overcrowding the previous map, another one has been drawn to show the noteworthy places mentioned in the history of the four Mysore wars between Haidar and the English, as well as the political position of the South Indian powers at the beginning of the conflict. For territorial changes resulting from this struggle the student should consult maps 27 and 28.

24. Haidar's Dominions in A.D. 1780¹

In 1780 **Mysore**, the government of which had, since 1760, been usurped by Haidar, may be said to have reached its largest extent. The map also shows the principal places of note during this aggressive period of Mysore history. To appreciate the extent of Haidar's conquests it should be compared with map 22.

Haidar's territory extended northwards to the river Kistna, westwards to the Arabian Sea, southwards to Dindigul, and eastwards, for the most part, to the edge of the eastern Ghauts. His tributary chiefs were the polygars of **Harpanhalli**, **Kanakgiri**, **Raidrug**, and **Anagundi**,² and the raja of **Cochin**.

¹ For the construction of map 24 the excellent map in Wilks's *Mysore* has been used.

² Wilks, *op. cit.*, i, 267-410.

26. The Principal Mahratta States in A.D. 1795¹

Map 27 represents all the Mahratta States by one colour, thus showing the extent and power of the Mahrattas as a confederacy. Map 26 on the other hand specifies the territories held by the leading Mahratta chiefs, over which they gradually acquired sovereign power, as the supreme authority of the Peshwa waned away. Yet only the larger portions of territory have thus been indicated, for it would be more confusing than instructive to mark all the smaller portions of land which one chief held in the territory of another.

The **Peshwa** then administered not only most of that part of the present Bombay Presidency which lies south of Gujarat and the Satpura Range, but also the lands comprised in the present districts of Sagar, Damoh, Jabalpur, and Mandla in the Central Provinces and large tracts of Bundelkhand. He claimed tribute from the princes of Bundelkhand (excepting Orchha) and Baghelkhand, and shared with the Gaekwar the tribute which the chiefs of Kathiawar were forced to pay.

Sindia's possessions in 1795, besides the territories which he now has, extended over the country between the Jumna and the Ganges (Upper Doab) and north of Jodhpur and Jaipur. Broach had been granted him by the English in 1782, and Ahmadnagar fell into his hands in 1795 after Madhu Rao's death. South of the Narbada he possessed the western portion of the present district of Hoshangabad, the district of Nimar with Asirgarh and Burhanpur, and the eastern portion of Khandesh. Dholpur, Bari, and Rajakhera in Rajputana were enclaves of his. In Gujarat he owned the Panch Mahals and in Rajputana, Ajmere. He exacted tribute from Udaipur, Jodhpur, and Kotah in Rajputana and from Rajgarh, Ratlam, Kilechipur, and Sitamau in Malwa. Of these only the two latter are still tributary to his successor.

Holkar owned, in addition to the territories he now possesses, the lands now forming the principality of Tonk, part of the present state of Kotah, and places north of the Bundi hill. He levied chauth from Udaipur, Jaipur, Jodhpur, Kotah, Bundi, and Karauli in Rajputana and from Narsingharh and Jhabua in Malwa.

Bersia, the northern district of Bhopal, then belonged to the Puars of **Dhar**, to whom the following principalities paid tribute : — Banswara and Dungarpur in Rajputana, and Ali Mohun (the present Ali Rajpur).

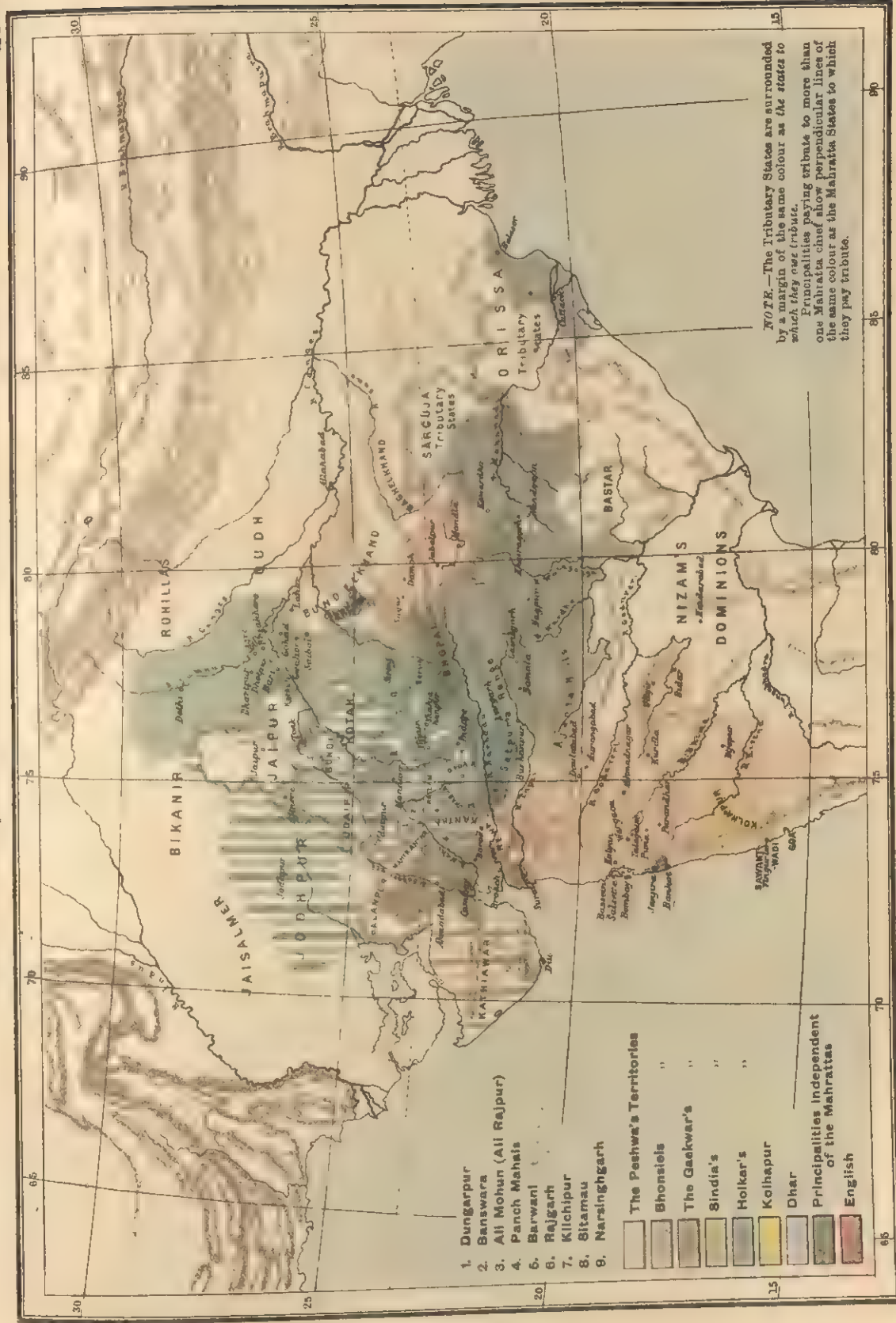
Bhonsle's territories extended over the greater part of the present Central Provinces, except such portions over which the Peshwa held sway, Berar, Cuttack, and Balasor. The chiefs of the Orissa hill tribes, of the Sarguja group of states, of Bastar, Nandgaon, Khairagarh, and Kawardha paid him tribute.

The **Gaekwar's possessions** were composed not only of his present dominions but also of the lands round Ahmadabad and the Gulf of Cambay, which were ceded to the English in 1805. The chiefs of Panapur and Kankrej, of Mahi Kanta and Rewa Kanta, almost the whole of Gujarat, were tributary to him. He had a share in the Kathiawar tribute and farmed the Peshwa's share of tribute in Kathiawar and Ahmadabad.

¹ The authorities for this chapter are : C. U. Aitchison, *A Collection of Treaties, etc., Relating to India* ; J. Grant Duff's *History of the Mahrattas* ; the *Central Provinces Gazetteer* and the new edition of the *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, Prov. Series.

The Principal Mahratta States in 1795.

26.



INDIA in 1795.

27.



27. India in A.D. 1795

The series of maps 27-31 shows the **decline of the Mahratta** and the **rise of the British power** in India.

In 1795 the boundaries of the **Mahratta Confederacy** reached their farthest extent. But the same year saw the Mahratta chiefs united for the last time under the banner of the Peshwa at Kurda.

In 1752 **Bhonsle** of Nagpur withdrew his garrisons beyond the Painganga, thus restoring the territory between that river and the Godaveri to the Nizam.¹ In 1757 Ahmadabad was finally taken by the Mahrattas, and Gujarat and Kathiawar were henceforth tributary to the **Gaekwar**, whilst Cutch remained independent.² In 1760, after the battle of Udgir, the Mahrattas by treaty acquired from the Nizam several forts, and amongst them Daulatabad, Asirgarh, Bijapur, Ahmadnagar, and certain districts which included the provinces of Bijapur, Bidar, and Aurangabad, excepting however the last-named city.³ In the north the provinces of Delhi and Agra were annexed in 1789 and the Moghul Emperor was entirely in the hands of **Sindia**.⁴ The Rajputs were made tributary to Sindia in 1792.⁵ In the south the Mahrattas by the treaty of Seringapatam (1792) received some districts between the Kistna and the Varadha.⁶

The **Nizam's dominions** were considerably reduced. They were bounded on the north by the Painganga and Godaveri rivers, and on the east by the Northern Circars. In the south, however, they had been enlarged by the treaty of Seringapatam (1792), Cumbum, Cuddapah (Kurpa), Gandikot, and districts between the lower Tungabhadra and the Kistna had been given to the Nizam.

The **Afghans** under Zaman Shah (1793-1800) still held the Punjab, Kashmir, and Sindh. In 1780 Bahawal Khan of Bahawalpur was forced to acknowledge the Afghan suzerainty.⁷

The nawabvizier of **Oudh** with the help of the British had added to his dominions the country occupied by the **Rohillas**.

The three Presidency towns, Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta, had become growing centres of British influence, and under men like Clive, Warren Hastings, and Cornwallis, the **English possessions** had assumed considerable dimensions. In the south a life-and-death struggle between the English and the French had ended with a total defeat of the latter. Bankot, south of Bombay, the command of that river, and ten villages were ceded by the Peshwa to the English in 1756.⁸ The **Northern Circars**—comprising Kondapalli, Ellore, Rajamahendri, and Chicacole—were taken from the French, and their acquisition was confirmed by imperial grant from Shah Alum, 1764.⁹ In 1765 the district of **Chengalpat** was ceded to the English by the nawab of the Carnatic.¹⁰ In the same year **Bengal, Behar** and **Orissa** were granted by Shah Alum II.¹¹ In 1775 the district of **Benares**, including Chanar and Ghazipur, were handed over by Shuja ud Daulah of Oudh.¹² In the west **Bassein** had been conquered and the island of **Salsette** acquired.¹³ **Guntur** was ceded by the Nizam in 1788.¹⁴ In 1792 the provinces of **Baramahal, Dindigul**, and **Malabar** were acquired through the treaty of Seringapatam;¹⁵ thus Tippu's territories were considerably reduced.

The nawabvizier of **Oudh** was an ally of the English, and the nawab of **Arcot** was under their protection.

¹ Grant Duff, op. cit., i, p. 540.

² *Bombay Gazetteer*, Kathiawar, p. 304, Cutch, p. 150.

³ Grant Duff, op. cit., i., pp. 593-4.

⁴ *Ib.*, ii, p. 250. Cf., notes to map 26.

⁵ Malleon, *Native States of India*, p. 348.

⁶ Pope, op. cit., iii, 16.

⁷ *Ib.*, x, 11; Rennel, *Memoir of a Map of Hindustan*, p. cxvi.

⁸ Grant Duff, op. cit., ii, p. 138.

⁹ *Ib.*, ii, p. 212.

¹⁰ *Ib.*, ii, p. 244.

¹¹ Grant Duff, op. cit., i, p. 571.

¹² *Ib.*, ix, 28.

¹³ *Ib.*, Intro., 23.

¹⁴ *Ib.*, x, 22.

¹⁵ Pope, op. cit., x, 21.

28. India in A.D. 1805¹

If map 27 fairly represents the political state of India before the arrival of Wellesley, map 28 shows the country after the administration of that distinguished statesman (1798-1805).

The power of Tippu had been for ever crushed in the fourth Mysore war (1798-9), and the districts of **Kanara**, **Coimbatore**, **Wainad**, and the **Nilgiri Hills** were annexed by the English. The Nizam in 1800 ceded the districts of Bellari and Cuddapah, and all the territories to the south of the Tungabhadra and to the south of the Kistna below the junction of those two rivers, which had been part of his share in the cessions after the third and fourth Mysore wars, for the maintenance of a subsidiary force. They are henceforth known as the "**Ceded Districts of Haidarabad**." In 1800 a dispute arose as to the succession in Tanjore. Wellesley being called upon to arbitrate annexed the state. In 1801 the nawab of **Oudh** was forced to cede, for the maintenance of a subsidiary force, the districts of Allahabad, Fatehpur, Cawnpur, Azamgarh, Gorakhpur, Bareilly, Moradabad, Bijnaur, Budaun, and Shahjahanpur, called the "**Ceded Districts of Oudh**." In the same year (1801) the **Carnatic** was annexed to the British possessions, because the late nawab had frequently put obstructions in the way of the Marquis Wellesley, and had held treacherous correspondence with Tippu. From 1802-3 the second Mahratta war was fought; the English, the Peshwa, and the Nizam being on one side, with Bhonsle of Nagpur and Sindia on the other. Bhonsle and Sindia were defeated all along the line. By the **treaty of Dewalgaon**, 1803, the raja of Nagpur ceded to the British and their allies the province of Cuttack, including Balasor, the territory west of the Wardha river and south of Gawilgarh. Narnala, Gawilgarh, and some districts south of these forts were, however, restored to Bhonsle. By the **treaty of Sirji Arjenjaon**, 1803, Sindia ceded to the British and their allies his territories between the Jumna and Ganges, all the territory situated north-east of the Rajput states, and the districts and towns of Broach and Ahmadnagar. Of these territories, the Nizam received the whole tract west of the Wardha and south of the hills on which stand Gawilgarh and Narnala down as far as the Godaveri, whilst the Peshwa received the district and fort of Ahmadnagar. Territories in **Bundelkhand** contiguous to the British possessions and yielding thirty-six lakhs of rupees were ceded by the Peshwa for the maintenance of a subsidiary force in 1803.

The **British supremacy** had been recognised in the following states: **Kuch Behar** in 1772, **Cochin** in 1791, **Haidarabad** in 1798, **Mysore** in 1799, **Baroda** in 1802, **Rampur** in 1801, the **Peshwa's dominions** in 1802, **Sindia's dominions** in 1804, **Travancore** in 1805, in **Bhartpur**, **Alwar**, and **Dholpur** between 1802 and 1806.

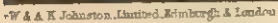
The Amirs of **Sindh** and the **Sikhs** had by this time acquired independence. The Sikhs on the right bank of the Sutlej were ruled by Ranjit Singh who, in 1798, had been appointed governor of Lahore by the Afghan king, but had gradually assumed independence.

Bahawalpur was independent in 1805, **Kashmir** was still ruled by the Afghans. The Gurkhas of **Nepal** had been steadily extending their territory to the west. In **Cutch** anarchy prevailed.

In 1805 the English were at war with Holkar on behalf of the Rajputs, their allies.

¹ The letterpress to maps 28-31 has been compared with and revised according to the data given by C. I. Aitchison in *A Collection of Treaties, Engagements, and Sanads Relating to India and Neighbouring Countries*, 3rd ed., Calcutta, 1892. 11 vols.





29. India in A.D. 1823

After the period of conquests and treaties under the Marquis Wellesley a period of reaction set in. A large section of the British nation was opposed to the aggressive policy of the late Governor-General. Hence the alliance with the Rajputs was given up and Holkar and Sindia were allowed to exact chauth from them. The Governor-General received strict injunctions not to enter upon any fresh war and not to interfere in the quarrels of native princes.

Under Lord Minto (1807-13), however, the old policy began to revive. The Sikh states on the left bank of the Sutlej placed themselves under British protection, 1809, rather than become subject to Ranjit Singh.

Then followed the administration of the Marquis of Hastings (1813-23). Under him, after a hard-fought campaign against the Gurkhas (1814-6), **Nepal** was reduced to its present dimensions by the treaty of Segauli. At this time the principal Mahratta states were disaffected and intriguing against the English. Bands of robbers, Pindharis, were ravaging central India and making frequent inroads on the territory of the British and their allies. They were sheltered and abetted by the Mahratta princes. The **Peshwa** first rose against the English in 1817. A short campaign ended with the annexation of the territories of the Peshwa, who was sent a state prisoner to Bithur on the Ganges. After the defeat of his army at Mehidpur, **Holkar** was forced, by the treaty of Mandeswar, to renounce his rights to Tonk Rampura, Bundi, and all other places north of the Bundi hills. Subsequently, however, Sir G. Barlow restored to him Rampura and the territory north of the Bundi hills. The principality of Sagar was likewise annexed. **Sindia**, who had been intriguing against the English with the Nepal ministry, was forced to cede the district of Ajmere and to renounce his claims of tribute on the Rajputs. **Apa Sahib of Nagpur** was after a short campaign deposed.

The **British supremacy** was recognised in all the **Rajput states** in 1817, 1818, and 1823 ; in the Malwa states : **Bhopal** (1817), **Indore** (1818), **Dewas** (1818), **Jaora** (1818), **Dhar** (1819) ; in Bundelkhand : **Orchha**, or **Tehri** (1812), **Rewa** (1813), **Samptar** (1817) ; in **Kolhapur** (1812) ; in **Sawantwadi** (1819) ; in **Cutch** (1816 and 1819) ; in **Kapurthala** (1809) ; in **Garhwal** (1820). In **Kathiawar** the British acquired the Peshwa's share in the supreme authority in 1817 and the Gaekwar's rights in 1820.

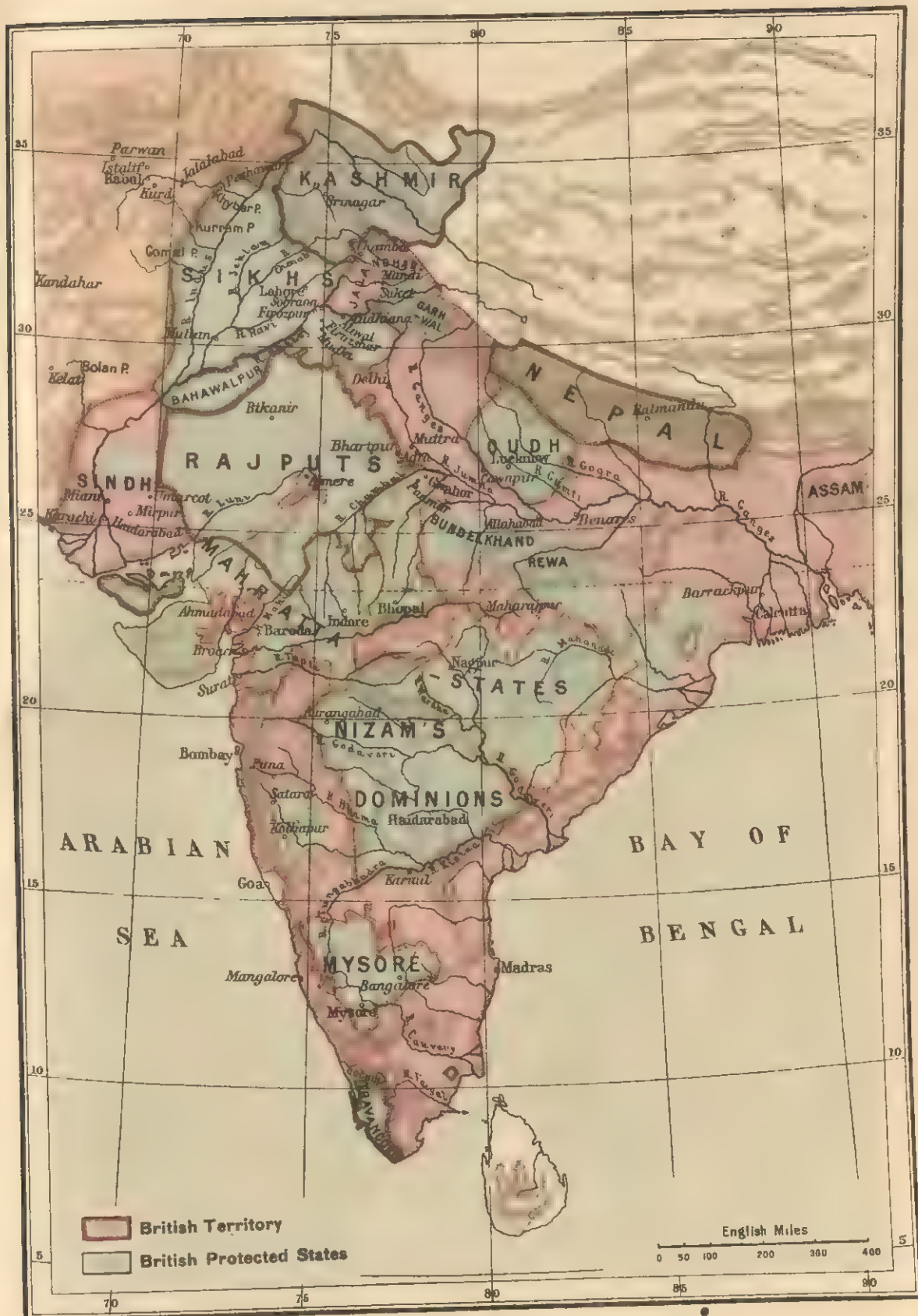
30. India in A.D. 1848

Map 30 shows India at the commencement of Lord Dalhousie's administration, 1848.

Under Lord Amherst, after the first Burmese war (1824-6), the Burmese government ceded **Arakan** and **Tenasserim**, and gave up its claims to **Assam**, **Cachar**, and **Jaintia** (see map 32). **Coorg** and **Karnul** were annexed in 1834 and 1841, because their rulers became insane and oppressed the people. **Sindh** was annexed after the Sindh campaign in 1843. In 1845 the Sikhs made an unprovoked attack on the British possessions. Hard-fought battles took place at Mudki, Firuzshah, and Sobraon, but at last the victorious English entered Lahore, the capital of the Sikhs, and a peace was concluded in 1846. The **Jalandhar Doab**, i.e., the country between the Beas and Sutlej, was annexed to the British possessions, and **Kashmir** made over to Golab Singh, a prominent Sikh leader, who agreed to pay the cost of the war. In 1832 **Cachar** lapsed to the sovereign power (see map 32).

The **British supremacy** was recognised by the following states : **Bahawalpur** in 1838, **Mandi** and **Suket** in 1846, **Chamba** in 1847, **Kashmir** in 1846.

Agra was constituted a distinct province under a Lieutenant-Governor, by Lord W. Bentinck in 1834.





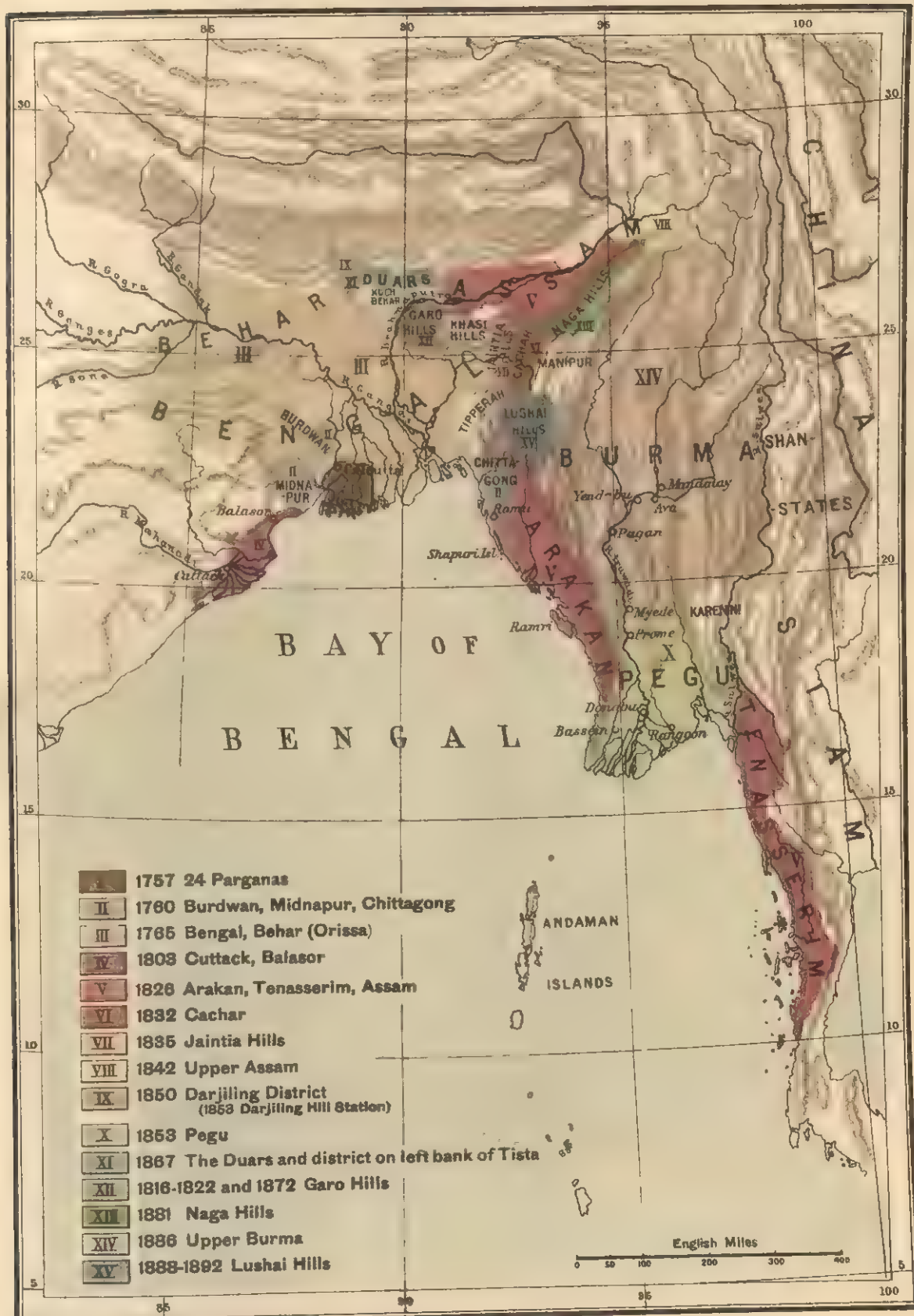
31. India in A.D. 1856

Under Lord Dalhousie (1848 -56) another period of annexation began.

The power of the **Sikhs** was finally broken in the battle of Gujrat (1849) and the Punjab annexed. **Satara** lapsed to the paramount power in 1848, because the raja died leaving no natural heir. **Pegu** was annexed after the second Burmese war in 1853. **Nagpur** lapsed to the ruling power in 1853, there being no heir to the throne on the raja's death. **Berar** was assigned to the English as payment for the subsidiary force in 1853. **Jhansi** lapsed to the paramount power in 1853. **Oudh** was annexed in 1856.

32. The Growth of British Bengal, Assam, and Burma

Maps 32 and 33 are so clear as to need no explanation.





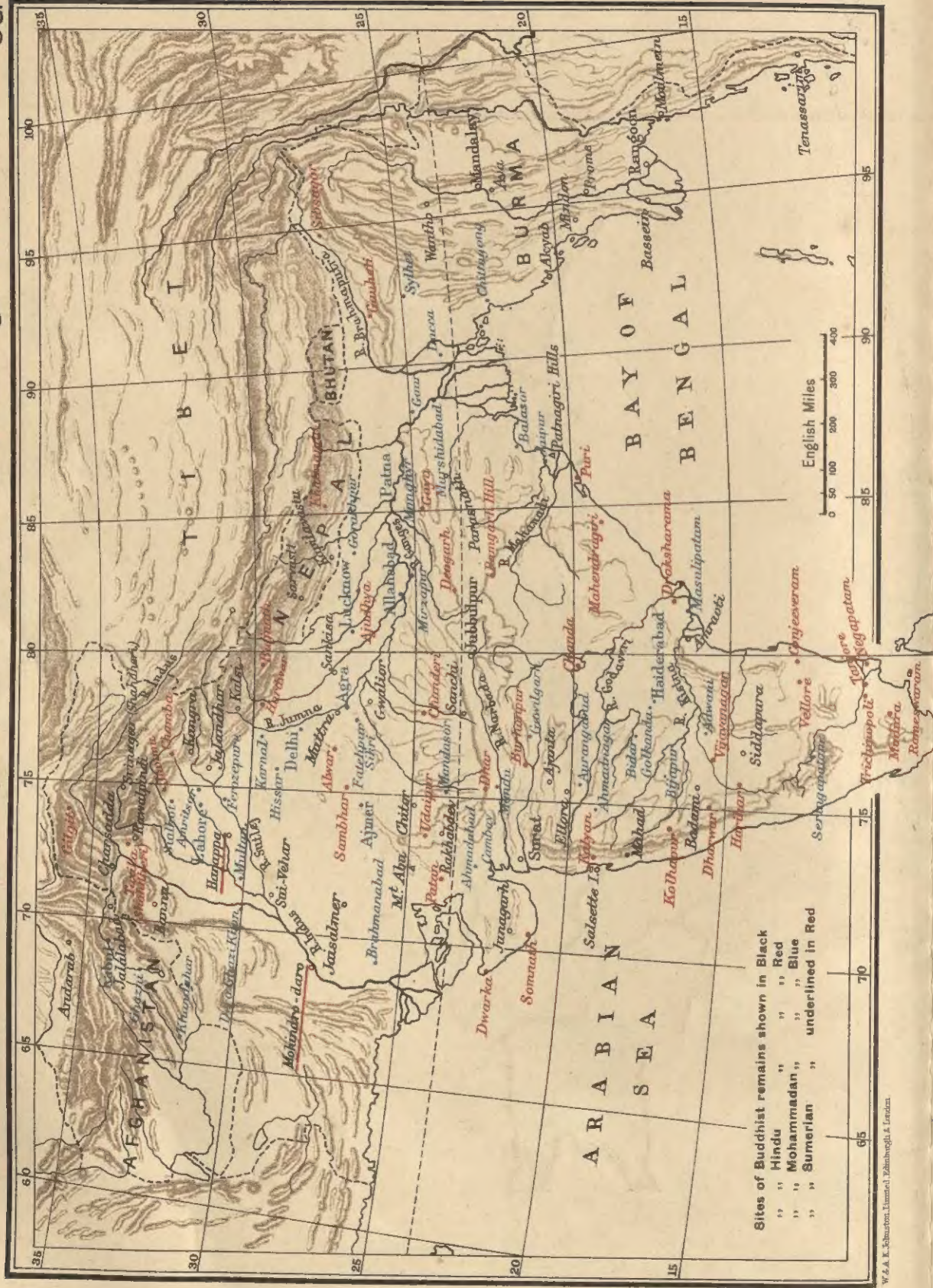
33. The Indian Empire in A.D. 1914

34. The Indian Empire in A.D. 1936

This map shows the results of the various reforms in connection with India, culminating in the Indian Reform Act of 1935. **Sind** has now become a separate province as has also **Orissa**. Burma has been detached from the Indian Empire altogether. The North-West Frontier Province, hitherto administered directly by the Government of India, has now received full provincial autonomy. The only large area now directly controlled by the Government of India is Baluchistan.

By an agreement made in 1936 the Nizam is confirmed in his ownership of Berar, but agrees to its administration by the Government of the Central Provinces as part of British India.





35. Map of India Showing Archæological Sites of Importance

India is full of remains of the past, some of them, like the recent discoveries at Harappa and Mohen-jo Daro, older than anything recorded in history, others, Hindu, Buddhist and Mohammedan relics of the periods to which they belong. These are often, as for example, the rock edicts of Asoka, of great historical value. In the present map the more important sites have been grouped together for easy reference.



The Seals above illustrated—which are taken from Sir John Marshall's book on the subject—come from the excavations at Mohen-jo Daro and Harappa in the Indus valley. They belong to the ancient civilization of the Sumerians and date from 3500–3200 B.C.

The cradle land of Sumer the “great Mother of Arts and Civilization,” was located somewhere in the mountains of Eastern Persia, Afghanistan, or Baluchistan. Similar discoveries have also been made at Ur in Babylonia. The Sumerians were a dark-haired race of Indo-European stock and these relics represent a civilization much older than any previously known to have existed in India.

